The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 3, 1895.

The Week.

THE dissolution of the Government-bond syndicate is announced in terms which may imply merely that the time for which it was organized has expired, or that the speculation has not turned out as was expected, or that the secretary of the treasury has done something in the premises which he ought not to have done. The words are these:

"The action of the United States Treasury on currency questions having stopped progress in the sale of bonds for the account of the 5 per cent. bond syndicate, and the period of thirty days mentioned in the notice of November 2 having expired, the syndicate is dissolved."

The Street has interpreted this as a hint that the secretary has turned against his friends by recommending a measure of currency reform which, if passed, would bring on the market some $200,000,000 of bonds now held as security for national banknotes, thus weakening the bond market and preventing the syndicate from reaping the profit which they had reason to expect. If this has been the effect of the secretary's recommendation, it was unintentional, of course, and in any case it ought not to have been referred to in this public way. The compulsory feature of the secretary's recommendation (the clause which requires banks to take up their security bonds and issue circulating notes on the new plan within a certain time) has been abandoned, and the probability now is that the whole bill will fail, so far as the present Congress is concerned. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the price of the bonds will again advance to 119 or higher. But even if it were otherwise, the Government has no bargain, express or implied, to do or refrain from doing anything with reference to a resale of the bonds by the syndicate to the public. Any suggestion or implication of this sort is in very bad taste.

The withdrawal from the Treasury, since the last bond sale was effected, of ten or twelve millions of gold *more* than has been exported during the same time, has drawn attention again to the unstable condition of the national finances, a condition due in part to a deficit of revenue, and in part to the Government's banking responsibilities—*i. e.*, its responsibility for the ultimate gold reserve of the country. It is not unlikely that a new bond sale may be advertised before the present Congress adjourns. That would not be a bad thing. It would put the greenback in a more glaring light than ever, and it might possibly induce Congress to take some step looking to the retirement and extinction of that pestiferous element of our currency. If no such step is taken, and if the withdrawal of gold continues, the President may find it necessary to call an extra session of Congress to relieve the country from the distrust, both at home and abroad, which rests as an incubus on the nation's prosperity. There may be other reasons for an extra session. If the deficit in the revenue continues, it will be necessary to impose new taxes. Nobody can yet say what sum the income tax will yield, or how soon the revenue from sugar will become effective. In the event that both these sources should be disappointing, an increase of the tax on beer would be the most inviting experiment. But in any event the greenbacks must go.

The output of gold continues to increase in the United States as well as in Russia and in South Africa. The *Engineering and Mining Journal* has information which leads it to think that Leadville will become a greater gold-mining than it ever was a silver-mining camp. It is estimated that the Leadville yield for the year will be $2,000,000. The extraordinary showing made in the Little Johnny gold property has been supplemented by "a most important discovery of gold ore in the Triumph shaft on a claim adjoining the Little Johnny on the south." The discovery has greatly stimulated exploration in that quarter. The richness of the South African field has caused a tremendous "boom" in the mining share-market in London, and the rage has extended to Paris and other parts of the Continent. Probably there will be a reaction, and a good many people will get their fingers burned, but the speculation is merely indicative of a large increase of the world's gold production over the extraordinary figures of the fiscal year 1893, which were the largest in the world's history.

The Hartford *Courant*, commenting upon Congressman De Forest's bill making postmasters hold office during good behavior and forbidding removals for political causes, remarks that "the principle is sound, but it is ludicrous to see outgoing Democrats trying, in the name of reform, to tie their men into the places they have turned Republicans out of." It is one of the peculiarities of civil-service reform that every forward step must be taken by the party which has control of the offices, and, human nature being what it is, is most likely to be taken when that control is threatened. The Republicans had been in possession of the entire civil service for more than twenty years, and the Democratic "tidal-wave" of 1882 foreshadowed the change of administration which was decreed by the voters in 1884, when the civil-service law was passed by an expiring Republican Congress early in 1883. The most important extensions of the "classified service" during Cleveland's first administration and during Harrison's term were made after the elections had shown that a change of parties was imminent. As the passage of the original law followed a sweeping political revolution, it would be only natural that the reform should receive a great impetus after another political revolution like that of last fall. One advantage of this method of extension is that it can be effected with but little opposition, the spoilsmen of the dominant party being prevented from grumbling by the notion that they are "tying" their office-holders in—though, as a matter of fact, incompetent and unfit men are less likely to retain place under the merit system than under the spoils system.

The really important thing is to get a general recognition by the public of the fact that "the principle is sound," and progress in this direction is now not only steady but rapid. Business men throughout the country are having the superiority of the new system to the old one brought home to them in a way that makes it impossible for defences of the spoils theory to carry any weight with them. Take, for instance, that demonstration of the value of the reform which Postmaster-General Bissell cites in his annual report from the experience of the railway mail service. It will be remembered that Cleveland issued an order bringing this service under the rules during his first term, but unfortunately so near its end that Harrison could suspend the order until Wanamaker had a chance to loot it. Records are kept of the number of "correct routings" and of errors made by the employees. In 1888 the proportion had been 3,694 to 1; after the Wanamaker sweep, errors increased so rapidly that the proportion of correct routings fell in 1889 to 2,834 to 1. Under the protection of the civil-service law the proportion has risen until in 1893, when no changes were made for political reasons after a change of national administration, the record was 7,144 to 1. In other words, blunders happen less than half as often under the merit system as under the spoils system. There is no arguing against such facts as these, and the Congressman who should now go before the business men of any city to sneer at reform in the Post-office Department would be laughed at. Indeed, the business men of Atlanta, Ga., nearly all of whom are Democrats, recently gave a dinner to the superintendent of the railway mail service for that part of the country, who secured his place under a Republican President.

A late decision of the Supreme Court affirms the constitutionality of a State law

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which prohibits the selling of any substance compounded in whole or in part of fats, oils, or any oleaginous material not produced from milk or cream, "which shall be in imitation of yellow butter." There is nothing in the law implying that this is an unwholesome article of food. If the thing is in imitation of yellow butter, not of white butter, it must not be sold. A majority of the court holds that this law is constitutional. Chief-Justice Fuller and Justices Field and Brewer do not concur with the majority. A dissenting opinion is filed by the chief-justice, maintaining that the law in question must be construed according to its natural and reasonable effect, as an attempt to regulate trade between the States, which is the prerogative of Congress solely. As the law in question does not put the prohibition on the ground of public health, but merely on the ground that the article looks like butter, it follows that any State law which prohibits the sale of things on the score of their appearance would be sustained by the courts. Thus the importation of worsteds might be prohibited because they look like woollens, or the sale of oak if it looks like walnut; or of steel if it looks like iron. Especially might all imitations be prohibited, even though the seller should put the word Imitation on them, as they do in the shop windows in Paris.

California is now afflicted with a new apprehension, namely, of being overrun by the Japanese. The new treaty with Japan, which has just been negotiated, gives the people of each nation the right of free entry into the other; and this is declared on the Pacific coast to be the opening of the gates for "a new Asiatic irruption." The San Francisco *Bulletin* says that "there are many people among us who believe that Japanese immigration is more threatening than the Chinese." It is at least a consolation to know that the Chinese bugbear is not so alarming as it used to be. As for the Japanese, it will doubtless seem very heartless to the people on the Pacific coast, but the truth is that the rest of the country cannot easily be excited over this new outcry. Even the professional politicians cannot see any votes in a plank declaring that "the Japanese must go."

It is very melancholy to see the name of Lyman Trumbull attached to a series of Populist resolutions in Chicago, which boldly take the ground that the obstruction of all the great highways of the country last summer as a means of compelling a carriage-builder in one State to "arbitrate" with his workmen, was a rising against "monopolies" which ought not to have been suppressed by the standing army; and that suppressing it and opening the highways was an "oppression of the poor," whom it had thrown out of employment all over the Union. Melancholy, too, is his declaration that it is the duty of the Government to "regulate the value of money," and to coin gold and silver at a ratio of 16 to 1, no matter what the market ratio may be. In fact, nearly every Populist platform is a fountain of despondency for the intelligent lover of his race.

Inspector Williams closed his testimony on Friday, and when he left the stand he "was congratulated by his friends." For what? Presumably because he had not been forced directly to confess acts of criminality. One of the curious things about the Lexow investigation is the frank admission of everybody that the fate of all accused or suspected officials hangs upon the ability of Mr. Goff to prove their guilt. When, a few days ago, the news went over the town that Capt. Schmittberger had confessed, and was giving testimony against Martin and other officials, the usual form of communicating this news was, "Schmittberger is giving away Jimmy Martin." So it has been in all cases. It is never said that a witness is accusing an official, but is "giving him away." This assumption, openly made by their friends as well as their enemies, that they are guilty, reflects the general sentiment of the city. There is not a person of intelligence in the community who has any doubt that most of the inspectors, captains, sergeants, and members of the force have shared in the blackmail collected, and that a proportion of it has gone also into Tammany district treasuries.

The explanation which Inspector Williams gave of his wealth is, like that advanced by all other suspected officials, ludicrously childish. He began his police career in 1866 with $15,000 or $20,000 in a friend's safe, and with a few building lots "in the northern part of Japan"; he has never had since that time a salary of more than $3,500, yet he is to-day worth between $40,000 and $50,000, owns a house in town, a handsome country place, a yacht, has an interest in ship-building in Maine, and lives in the style of a very rich man. The only account he gives of his wealth is that a friend, who was interested in a brand of whiskey which Williams has been accused of promoting, once gave him $5,000 or $6,000 which he had made for him in Wall Street, Williams not investing a penny as a basis for the transaction. He has never, he says, received a penny of blackmail from any source, does not know what a "dive" or a "panel-house" is, and though he has been tried eighteen times by the Police Board, has been charged by a grand jury with many serious offences, has been accused by Mayor Hewitt of others equally serious, and has been implicated as a sharer in blackmail by many witnesses during the present inquiry, he declares that one and all of these accusations are lies and their authors liars. The most remarkable thing about the whole matter is that Williams really believes that he has made a good showing of himself.

After Williams came "Jimmy" Martin, police commissioner, and, though Mr. Goff had only a short session with him, he extracted from him the valuable admission that he was "sorry to be connected with" a department against which such testimony had been brought as this investigation had produced against the Police Department. As for himself, Martin was in complete ignorance of all the blackmailing and other infamous practices till the committee began its work. He had heard more about them before he became a commissioner than he had since. He did not even know that the captains were getting rich. He did know, however, that politics had a good deal to do with the force, and that in making appointments he had given preference to those recommended by his political friends. All witnesses who had testified to his detriment, by showing that he had shared in blackmailing and other crimes, had "lied" in his case as in that of Williams. He could give no reason why the Police Board had not discovered that the "department was rotten all the way through," was frank to admit that it would have gone on in that way if the investigation had not taken place, but was sure that a single-headed control would not be a good thing, "because the man at the head would be so busy that he could not know what was going on." As on his own declaration a four-headed commission had been totally ignorant of what was going on, it is very plain that we must look to other authorities than Jimmy for reform suggestions.

The testimony of Superintendent Byrnes seems to clear him of complicity in the levy of blackmail on the small people of the community, but it opens up another field of abuse which is far more difficult to deal with. A system cannot be sound or wholesome which permits a police officer to accumulate a fortune of $300,000 in a few years through gifts or "points" from rich men. These gifts are made either to get him to do his duty, or to get him to do in his official capacity something which is not his duty. In the first case they must be set down as sheer bribery. In the second the officer, while in the public service, allows himself to be secretly hired by wealthy men to devote to their service powers or talents which he owes to the community. In a great city like New York, rich men are constantly getting into "scrapes" of one sort or another from which there is often no legal escape. The aid of a police officer in providing illegal means of escape, or in using his office to overawe or cajole, is often under such circumstances invaluable. We do not mean to say that it should never be rendered. The scandal

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and unhappiness to innocent third persons which some kinds of exposure often cause, are so frightful that a great right may often be purchased cheaply by a little wrong. But no police officer ought to receive enormous fees for any such services. If it is right to render them, he owes them for nothing. If it is wrong to render them, he ought not to render them at all. We do not think we exaggerate when we say that a police officer to whom such chances are open, soon begins to look on his salary with contempt, and that, if he is a superior officer, his state of mind very soon comes to the knowledge of his subordinates, and they learn to cast about outside for additions to their pay. With a captain and inspector making strokes of fortune in Wall Street, through police services, it is almost inevitable that the more stupid or less fortunate fellows should come down on the "madames" and the policy-men.

When we come to talk of a remedy, we confess we are puzzled. All government—at least all successful government—is based on the presumption that the bulk of office-holders will be honest and do their duty. For general dishonesty there can be no legal remedy. Our main reliance in securing public servants must be on *character*. Unless we can get commissioners of police and inspectors and captains who have pride enough and self-respect enough to refuse money for doing their duty, we cannot prevent it by legal penalties only. How, for instance, are we to know for long years that a police officer is growing rich through the favors of Wall Street men, and how can we apply penalties unless we have evidence? This makes care in the work of reorganizing the force of enormous importance. It ought to be commanded by men who care for their reputation, and have been bred in some school of honor and duty, and to whom their social standing is precious. The funny political adventurers who would freely go to jail for $1,000, and would, like Fisk's father, tell twelve lies for a York shilling, with whom we have been filling our "bi-partisan commissions" for years past, must be got rid of, or we shall have in a very few years from this time over again the state of things which we are now deploring. In fact, the "bi-partisan commission" is itself the most fertile source of corruption ever concocted, because it makes responsibility impossible.

Mayor Strong has given us a most gratifying indication of the new era which his administration is to open for the city in selecting Col. George E. Waring, jr., as Commissioner of Street-Cleaning. The shock of an appointment like this to the old-timers of politics must be tremendous. Col. Waring is actually not in politics at all. He is merely an engineer, and one of the first professional sanitarians of his time. No such man has entered the Street-Cleaning Department since its formation. We doubt if in the whole country a man more entirely fit for the position could be found. He was the agricultural and drainage engineer of the Central Park at the time of its construction, served throughout the war with distinction, and since that time has been in active practice as an engineer of drainage, acting in that capacity for various towns and cities. He has had experience in the management of large forces of men, is a born organizer and leader, and has no other conception of public office than to conduct it in the best possible manner. In addition to all these qualifications he is a man in the prime of life, with a vigorous constitution, and a knowledge of men and of the world which will make it very difficult for the politicians either to wear him out or to deceive him. Under his direction the problem of cleaning the streets of the city will for the first time be met in a scientific and thoroughly capable manner, and we can have no doubt of the outcome.

The City Club has made an inquiry into the qualifications of the election officials as disclosed by their records at the last election. It is shown that fully three-fourths of them were incompetent, and that the responsibility for their selection rests upon the Police Board. It is also shown that in other respects the administration of this board in regard to election matters is equally bad, and no one can read the facts brought out by the City Club and escape the conclusion that control of elections ought to be taken away from the Police Department entirely, and placed under a separate bureau, like the present Bureau of Elections, with carefully drawn powers and specified duties. Such separation, in addition to giving us more competent election officials, would take away from Platt-Tammany politicians their last excuse for a bi-partisan police board.

The presidents of Indiana colleges, at their conference in Indianapolis on Thursday, decided to prohibit intercollegiate football contests between the students of the institutions over which they preside. Their action will no doubt cause a great outcry, and they will be called "physical wrecks" and enemies of their race and country; but really they must be regarded as the true friends of football. All they legislate against is the abuses of the game, which its hottest advocates admit must somehow be checked or else the whole thing abolished. Indiana students can play the manly game as much as they choose on their own grounds. They can personally collide day after day with a violence and vigor which will assure even Prof. Richards that they will make good citizens and be the safety of the nation in the next great war. All they are to be prohibited from doing is to furnish a public spectacle of brutality, for glory and gate-money. They can take each other off into private corners of the college campus and "knee" and "slug" each other to their heart's content, but they can no longer plunge the athletic alumnus and their sisters and sweethearts into a frenzy of delight by doing it before a yelling audience at $2.50 per seat. It is perhaps too much to hope that our cultured college presidents in the East should follow the example of these Hoosier schoolmasters, but the least they can do with decency is to confine intercollegiate football hereafter to college grounds. Such a step would itself do away with many of the gravest evils connected with the game, though we believe the entire Hoosier programme will yet have to be adopted.

The dissatisfaction with the young Kaiser seems to find every day bolder expression in Germany. Not only have the Socialists been openly disrespectful to him in the Reichstag, but the Berlin architects have been turning him into ridicule. He has declared himself so dissatisfied with the new Reichstag building that he struck the name of Herr Wallot, the architect, off the list of those proposed for the gold medal of the last exhibition and substituted that of a favorite of his own, Mme. Parlâghy. Moreover, he ordered the inscription "To the German People" to be erased from the plan of the building originally submitted to him. The painters have now revenged themselves by making the ornaments at their annual banquet bits of ridicule of the Emperor, his taste, and his musical compositions, and of Mme. Parlâghy, his favorite painter. No such demonstration could, of course, take place unless there was a good deal of strong popular feeling behind it. It is a fresh illustration of the difficulty, of which we spoke the other day, of setting up a feudal monarchy with a free press and free parliament in a modern state. The Emperor's notion of himself was always ridiculous. During the first few years of his reign he instructed all the first teachers in Germany in the proper methods of instruction, called a convention to elevate the working classes, and told the soldiers they were to obey only God and himself, or rather God through him, and were to shoot their fathers and mothers if he ordered them. His occasional manifestations of his wisdom since then have been in all respects worthy of the Middle Ages, but he has not until now ventured to dispute the judgment of a profession on the merit of one of its own practitioners. Not only has he given a slap in the face to the architects, but he has also given one to the painters, showing that he considers himself a universal genius. He evidently has Frederick the Great in his mind, but forgets how much the world has changed since Frederick reigned. One of the leading German papers has had the courage to call attention to the depreciatory terms in which the foreign press now speaks of their wonderful ruler.

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PLATT AND CROKER.

We presume very few people in this city were aware until recently that "Senator" T. C. Platt worshipped in Dr. Parkhurst's church. To those who knew of it Dr. Parkhurst's recent announcement that one Platt was worse than "five Crokers" was extremely startling, because every one felt that no one was so likely to be acquainted with Platt's moral and spiritual condition as his pastor. In politics, too, it is rare for a man's pastor to abandon him. As a rule, his pastor and his wife stick to him to the last, no matter what the world may say of him. Nay, the cases have not been infrequent where "old pastors," from whose spiritual care he has long passed away, come forward when he is in trouble, to testify to the purity of his character and the nobility of his aims. The abandonment of Platt by his pastor, therefore, was not only an unusual event in the spiritual world, and sent a shock of dismay through the country editors, but it left Platt in a condition from which few politicians have ever emerged with credit. But in America the old proverb, "Never despair," has a force and meaning unknown in older societies. Here pastors come and pastors go, but the sinner flows on for ever. Platt is not a man to be dismayed by the loss of one pastor in a town full of clergy. He promptly found another. He met by luck, at a banquet of the Black Lake Fishing Club, a divine who differs from Dr. Parkhurst *toto cœlo*, as Croker says, concerning Platt's character. His name is Dr. Burrell, and he says Platt's character is as good as Dr. Parkhurst said it was bad. In fact, he said it made "his blood boil" to have any one call Platt a bad man. So Platt has gone to his church.

There is a certain force in Dr. Burrell's objection to having Platt likened to Croker as a man. Individually he has a great many points of superiority to Croker. He has, for instance, a lawful occupation. He has never been accused of murder or other legal offence. He has never fought in the ring, or been a street "tough." He has been respectably brought up, and has received a fair education. His circular to the country editors, if his own, was a composition of some literary merit. Though last, not least, he has a pastor, and is a regular attendant at church. But where Dr. Burrell is in error is in supposing that Dr. Parkhurst, or any one else, just now is occupied with Platt as a man. He is considering him as a politician, or, if any one likes the phrase better, as a "boss." At the same time we admit that a man like Dr. Parkhurst is very unlikely to separate the man from the politician in forming moral judgments about him. He does not believe, any more than Mr. Coudert, in two personalities, one wicked and the other righteous, or in two consciences, one tender and the other tough, in the same American citizen. In other words, one cannot abuse Platt the Boss without casting reflections on Platt the pewholder.

Where Dr. Burrell is in error is in supposing that Platt the Boss differs in any essential particular from Croker the Boss. The great difficulty of the situation to-day is that their view of "politics" is the same, and their methods are the same, and their relation to the Legislature is the same. Both are private individuals, with influence, acquired in various ways, over their party in this State. Both receive money for party purposes in the form of blackmail from individuals and corporations; both spend it without rendering any account. Croker clearly retains a large portion of it for his own private use. Of this we are unable to accuse Platt, but this is the only distinction we can make between them. If Dr. Burrell can get his parishioner to sue us for libel for alleging that Platt exacts large sums from corporations, exactly as Croker does or did, and uses it to retain his control of the Legislature, or, in other words, as a vast corruption fund, we shall be exceedingly obliged to him, and he will do the community a great service.

This control of the Legislature, thus acquired, sometimes by direct donation, sometimes by pecuniary help during the canvass, sometimes by the bestowal of office, is used by both in like manner to maintain their hold on the contributors to the corruption fund. By "owning" the Legislature they are able to threaten the corporations, and by threatening the corporations they are able to retain possession of the Legislature. The possession of the Legislature furnishes a basis for a large number of "deals" with the other side, in which not only are the interests of the community disregarded, but, through the indifference to character and fitness which "deals" always involve, a gentle stream of corruption is diffused through the whole population, which makes it difficult to secure any reform until the abuse gets so scandalous, as in the case of the police, as to threaten the social fabric itself.

We are very sure that most intelligent men in this city who have engaged in reform during the past few months are of opinion that the expulsion of Croker from power is only half the work to be done. The other half is the expulsion of Platt from power and the break-up of the system of management which he practises and represents. It belongs to a much earlier age, and is destined surely to perish under the operation of the secret ballot. But we can ill afford to wait for that. We are perfectly sure that any signs of bossism in dealing with city affairs at this juncture will meet with condign punishment at the next election; but it would be hard to have to sit still till then in order to give Platt a fresh lesson. If, therefore, Dr. Burrell can induce him to abandon the boss business, and either sink into obscurity as an expressman, or else devote himself to the support of the Committee of Seventy, he will not only render a great service to Platt's own soul, but to this long-suffering city. Platt's intelligence is apparently not strong. His present rôle gives him a prominence which he is naturally reluctant to relinquish, and he pays small heed to the arguments of Mugwumps and reformers. But if approached by his pastor on the spiritual side, and made to see the moral splendor of the sacrifice which we ask of him, it might be that scales would fall from his eyes, and the real wrong of his present trade be revealed to him.

SOCIALISM (LIMITED).

The new president of the Federation of Labor, John McBride, signalizes his accession to that office and his defeat of the loquacious Gompers by an interview on wealth and its responsibilities and proper distribution. On this subject every labor leader is expected to have pronounced views. Indeed, the main object of labor organizations nowadays is not, as simple-minded people might imagine, to create wealth by work, but to assist in the correct distribution of wealth already created. McBride announces himself as a "limited socialist." By this he means that he would not have the Government take over immediately all forms of production, but only the railroads to begin with, and then, one by one, such industries "as the people may elect from time to time." "As to wealth," observed the limited McBride, "I think that the time has come to prevent the accumulation of vast fortunes"; and he would prevent it by confiscating them to the state, "and thus back into the pockets of the people."

This explanation of limited socialism seems a trifle vague, but we must remember the limited opportunity offered a philosopher in a newspaper interview. Luckily we find the subject treated in ampler style in a book just published by C. Osborne Ward of the United States Department of Labor. Mr. Ward is also a (for the present) limited socialist. He would have the Government display even an excess of caution in nationalizing industry. He would go so slow that the most timid would not take alarm. Like McBride in this respect, he is unlike him in working out his idea in detail, and showing how at least a beginning might be made. It is this that makes his book worth considering. Most socialists have neither the patience nor the head to picture the actual operation of a Government workshop. To work out the details of all industries in Government hands would, indeed, be a task to make the Prussian General Staff throw up its hands in despair. It is much easier to say that the thing ought to be done, and therefore it can be done; that it ought to work well, therefore it will. But Mr. Ward tried his hand at planning a single Government factory, and this is enough to

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make his book notable among socialistic publications.

Another reason for calling attention to it is that its title is such as to hide its great merits, if not its aim and meaning, from the casual and unwary reader. It is called 'The Equilibration of Human Aptitudes and Powers of Adaptation,' and is sent forth with flattering notices from the leading Populists in Congress and influential labor organs. The author himself says it is meant to fill "the gap that yawns between Darwin and the millennium." One naturally looks for a great deal of profound reasoning in a book destined to close so wide a crack, and there are, in fact, 174 pages of it, which those, like ourselves, having no head for metaphysics will be glad to skip and come at once to the practical part. Here we have lucidly laid down the process of acquiring control by the Government of railroads, telegraphs, and telephones. We are to start out by "organizing a thoroughly honest political party." The way to do this is to found it "upon principles" and not "ambition." Having got your honest party, it will be safe to buy up the railroads, though we must say there is a suspicious scurrying over pounds, shillings, and pence just here, equal to that of Dickens's treasurer of a charitable society. But with the railroads once owned, it is certain that there would be no strikes or strikers. "How can the striker wish to destroy that which is his own?"

The blessings which would flow from national telegraphs are in like manner considered mainly as affecting labor privileges. When a great blizzard like that of 1888 cuts off communication between New York and Boston, it would not be the rich alone who could cable to London and thence to Boston, but "the humble citizen" could do the same thing. Prof. Commons has shown how the great beauty of municipal street-cars would be that men out of work could ride up and down gratis in search of a job, and now Mr. Ward points out the powerful inducement to nationalizing telegraphs in the fact that men like Debs could send their labor despatches free of cost, blizzard or no blizzard.

But Mr. Ward is at his best, and is also more original, when on the process of "socializing manufacturing industry." We should "never think of opening a manufactory" on Government account, he tells us, in the hope of competing with others. Such a factory would have "a greater and nobler object than that of paltry gain." The hands are to "work less time and receive a little more pay" than others, and naturally there will be an "annual deficit to pay out of the national treasury for a considerable time." But this need make no difference. The new mills will have a great advantage over competitive factories: "They have no desire for profit." Their only desire is "to supply humanity with pure, honest goods." On the other hand, the competitive mill cares for nothing whatever but profit, and "without profit it will languish and die." In this way Mr. Ward thinks gradually to kill off the competitive mills, even if they do for a time combine in secret against the Government mill, and lampoon and libel that institution devoted to pure and honest goods and the welfare of humanity. But he does not see that the process would be far more summary. Their operatives would all desert them on the spot, and take the first train to Washington to get that less work and more pay. This is an old principle of human nature, especially of labor nature, and would work infallibly. It works even with office-holders. When Amos Kendall and Major Lewis were given two offices by Jackson to divide between them, Lewis was given his choice, and promptly elected to take the one in which there was the least work.

Thus it appears that Mr. Ward has hit upon a greater principle than he is aware of. His limited socialism would run into unlimited socialism in a single day. The great principle of scorning profit and paying the difference out of the national treasury would get universal application the moment it got application at all. Mr. Ward's plan might do away with strikes, as he says it would, but it would bring the entire laboring population of the country in a raging mob about that Government factory where higher pay was to be had for less work. An old-fashioned strike, with all its terrors, would be nothing to that. Socialism, in fact, can never be a limited-liability company. Like the folly with which it is advocated by well-meaning men—and Mr. Ward appears to be a thoroughly earnest and well-meaning man—it must be perfectly unlimited.

CHEAPENING PRODUCTION.

Mr. William Garrett, the well-known inventor, of Joliet, Ill., in a recent lecture stated that wire nails are so cheap that it is estimated that if a carpenter drops a nail, it is cheaper to let it lie than to take time to pick it up, and this might suggest the inquiry whether cheap nails make a cheap carpenter. Mr. Garrett's statement has led the *Iron Age* to do some figuring, with interesting results. Assuming that it takes a carpenter ten seconds to pick up a nail which he has dropped, and that his time is worth 30 cents per hour, the recovery of the dropped nail would cost 0.083 cent. There are 200 sixpenny nails in a pound, and they are worth on an average 1.55 cents per pound, making the value of one nail 0.0077 cent. In other words, it would not pay to pick up ten nails at the assumed loss of time and rate of pay of the carpenter. There could not be a more striking illustration of the results of our industrial conditions: the extreme cheapness of manufactured articles per unit and as measured in terms of labor payments per hour or per day.

In the United States the industrial situation proves that high-priced labor is the most efficient; that the cost of production of large quantities is really less per pound or per yard where high wages are paid and in connection with capital and machinery than where low wages are paid to ignorant laborers. This statement of the philosophy of high wages points the way towards improvement in such of our industries as are now feeling more than ever before the competition with the poorly paid labor of foreign countries. The condition of the farmer in the United States is one which merits the attention of all who are trying to forecast the future. Certainly the prices of the great staples are very low. Whether there is any profit to the agricultural producer at present prices is a disputed question. Farmers are everywhere complaining of the lack of profit, but this of itself is not a good criterion of their condition. It is not many years since it was possible for the New Englander or the small farmer from Europe to take up land in the West at a low price per acre, borrow the greater part or even the whole of the capital required, and by the profit from a few years' crops pay off the indebtedness. That he cannot do this now is not an evidence that farming, even at present quotations for products, does not yield some return on the money invested in farms and farm machinery; for it must be remembered that the farmer needs very little cash except to pay interest and taxes—his living and that of his family being practically assured from his own land. The advantages of house-rent, food, and fuel, which figure so largely in the expenses of the city artisan, are not enough considered by the average farmer when he thinks upon his condition. Yet, when all is said, it must be admitted that the lot of the grower of farm products for export is a hard one.

The attention of the world has lately been drawn to the wheat-grower. In England the profits of wheat production have steadily declined, principally under the competition of American breadstuffs; and it is now America's turn to prepare for the competition of other countries. We have every reason to believe that the world's production of wheat, or at least that portion of it which is sold in European markets, will for a time be large. The Argentine Republic has been increasing its exports of wheat largely of late. There is no reason for doubting that the building of the great Russian railway through Siberia will bring upon the world's markets an increasing quantity of wheat from the fertile lands of Siberia—lands which somewhat resemble the wheat-growing acres of our own Northwest, but from which there has not been until now any cheap outlet. Our consul-general at St. Petersburg says there is a large emigration from Russia to Siberia, where land can be hired at $1.70 per acre, and where laborers receive 15 and 21 cents a day, taking the Russian ruble at its gold valuation. The net return to the farmer in the interior of the Argentine Republic is set down at 37 cents per bushel of wheat in gold,

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about the price which our own farmers in Dakota and Minnesota are now obtaining for their grain.

From this brief statement of facts it is evident that the struggle for the wheat markets of the world for the next few years must be one wherein the fittest will survive. Under these circumstances it is important to remember that the growing of wheat, like the manufacture of nails, is not a question of price but of profit. The problem that is set before the farmers and the people of the United States is this: How shall we apply to the staple crops the improvements which, in manufacturing, now allow the outturn of 125 six-penny wire nails for one cent? It must be admitted that the problem is even more difficult of solution in agriculture than in manufactures, yet apparently we have entered upon an era when the question of cheapening the cost of farming must be considered if we are to hold our own in exports against countries whose soil is as fertile as ours, and where labor cheaper than ours, but correspondingly inefficient, is employed. In spite of the improvements in farm machinery, such as in ploughs and mowing-machines, we are still using some methods of agriculture which have not greatly changed since the days of the Pharaohs. For example, farming greatly needs a new motive-power. It is possible that this new power may come from the application of electricity in some form to agriculture. If so, we shall see the horse and the mule driven from domestic use on farms just as we have seen them driven from our surface railroads by the introduction of the trolley. The problem of producing our great staple crops at the cheaper cost per pound or per bushel is one of the great questions of our day. It may be that the problem will be solved by the application of other forces than human or animal power, and if so we may assume that it will be in cotton-planting, as it has proved to be in cotton-spinning, that the new methods will demand higher intelligence, and therefore will pay high wages for the laborer, though at a reduced cost per unit of production or manufacture.

The past history of our people warrants the belief that they will meet the new conditions of competition and overcome them by inventions, and in general by the application of brains to their business. Cotton can now be grown in Texas at 2½ cents per pound. Has there been a corresponding reduction in the cost of growing wheat? We have no data for answering this question, but we are confident that there will be such a reduction, since the cheapening of nails and of everything that the farmer buys is *pro tanto* a cheapening of his cost of production.

CHRISTIAN UNITY.

THE Paris *Figaro* published, a few days ago, a despatch from Rome to the effect that the Pope was anxious to do in the West what he had just succeeded in doing in the East; and that, with the object of effecting a union of the churches, he intends drawing together at the Vatican a number of Catholic prelates of England and America, in order to confer with them as to the best means of realizing his plan. It was added in this despatch that the Pope particularly desires the advice of Cardinals Gibbons and Taschereau.

The information that the Pope had succeeded in the East in bringing about church unity, or even Christian unity, cannot have failed to astonish profoundly every one who has been following the papal endeavors in that direction. To speak of it as a success is unwarranted by facts; for the truth is that these endeavors have completely failed. Pope Leo's encyclical exhorting the rulers and nations of the world to effect Christian unity by submission to the See of Rome failed to produce any impression upon the Lutheran and the Greek. Then it was proposed to invite the orthodox Greek Episcopate to meet in Rome in order to discuss the question of uniting the Greek and the Roman creeds. This plan had to be given up, as the adherents of the Greek Church showed a very marked disinclination to being absorbed by the Roman Catholic Church. The introduction of the old Slavic liturgy, which was expected to give a mighty impulse to the Roman-Greek propaganda, led, on the other hand, to open mutiny and revolt on the part of Roman Catholic rural communities against their clerical leaders. Consequently the Vatican had to cut down those invitations to the members of the dissenting churches of the Orient, the "Oriental Dissenters," who were to be persuaded into acknowledging the authority and supremacy of the Pope.

But even this programme, minimized as it was, proved impracticable. All the opinions handed down by Eastern propagandists concurred in the assertion that more than individual submissions to the Roman Church could not be expected. Thus the programme had to be curtailed once more; the conference to be held at Rome had to be limited to the question of more closely linking to Rome the Oriental churches which are already united with the papal church. It is generally known that the Roman Church has supported, for centuries, a very active and expensive propaganda in Asiatic Turkey; it is aided, financially and diplomatically, by France since the Turkish sultans accorded to the Frenchmen a protectorate over the Catholics in the Orient. Even the curtailed programme, now almost mutilated into a nonentity, turned out to be impracticable. Of the five Oriental patriarchs, only the Melchitic and Syrian answered the call, whereas the Maronitic and Chaldaic patriarchs sent substitutes, while the Armenian patriarch stayed away; it is said that the Turkish Government prevented him, by main force, from going to Rome. The result of the conferences was absolutely negative. The Oriental dignitaries did not make the slightest concessions; they asserted their full independence; nay, they even demanded the revocation of a certain papal decree concerning mixed marriages. This was the outcome of what the Roman despatch to the *Figaro* calls the "successful" efforts at Christian unity.

This outcome is anything but surprising. The idea of gathering the entire Christian world into one grand body, to bring about a unity of faith and a unity of government, is sublime—too sublime to be realized. It resembles other Utopian fancies, such as the eternal peace and the general disarmament. This opinion is corroborated by no less a personage than Cardinal Gibbons, whose advice, according to the *Figaro* despatch, the Pope is so anxious to hear. To be sure, the cardinal, in his comments on the encyclical, wholly commends the Pope's great scheme; but, speaking of "another cry for unity," that from the Parliament of Religions at the World's Fair, he firmly expresses his disbelief in the possibility "that such endeavors for Christian unity can accomplish their purpose." Such efforts, he says, will not induce the Calvinist to give up his predestination or the Methodist his particular doctrines. The Lutheran will not add to his two sacraments, nor the Episcopalian to his three. The Anglican and the Greek will continue to deny Roman supremacy, and the Catholic cannot be separated from the see of Rome.

The cardinal points out the difficulty of making us "sink our individual differences," and the absence of a bond so strong that "by its cogency it would compel all to put aside their individual conceptions and private opinions, and to accept a common universal creed or formula of faith and a uniform code of morality." Religion consists, as Cardinal Gibbons asserts, not only in charity, but also in doctrines and dogmas; "doctrine must precede practice, principles must precede actions." This point of view accepted, why should it apply only to a "parliament of religion" and lose its argumentative strength with a papal encyclical? The authority of the Pope in religious matters does not extend beyond the circle of his church; the non-Catholics are sharply opposed to the Roman dogmas, while those who have outgrown any kind of dogmas are quite as certain not to submit to the Vatican. To expect a church to submit to, and be absorbed by, a "centre of Christian truths" would be equivalent to asking for its disruption.

The idea of church unity, or, in the parlance of the Vatican, "the return of the prodigal sons to the paternal house," is by no means an invention of the nineteenth century. As far back as the fifteenth century the Roman Church negotiated with the Greek Government and clergy, who, scared by the Osmanic invasion, entreated the assistance of the Pope. But finally, in spite of all endeavors towards unity and reconcilia-

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tion brought to bear at the Florence council, the patriarch of Constantinople, the urban and rural clergy, and the monks of Mount Athos declared their preference for the secular yoke of the Turks over the spiritual yoke of the Roman Church. From 1552 to 1560 numerous attempts were made to bring the Protestants back to the Roman fold. Peaceable endeavors failing, the Pope, King Philip II., Emperor Ferdinand III., and the Jesuits found it easier to convert the recalcitrant schismatics after the Bismarckian fashion of blood and iron. The papal church has never for a moment resigned its claim to superior power and primacy, but none of its frequent efforts at establishing this claim has been successful, and the explanation of these failures is given in Cardinal Gibbons's own words, notwithstanding the fact that they were not intended to be applied against that hereditary claim of the Catholic Church.

SOME CONTINENTAL LIBRARIES—IV.

FLORENCE, December 10, 1894.

PASSING over Florence for the present, since our winter's stay in that city would give opportunity for a more extensive acquaintance with its libraries later on, our next bibliothecal visits were to several of the Roman libraries. Of these, we saw the Vittorio Emanuele, the central one of the Government libraries, the library of the Vatican, and the private collection of MSS. and fifteenth-century editions known as the Boncompagni Library. A catalogue of this collection by Enrico Narducci was printed in 1893, and noticed by the *Library Journal* at the time of its appearance. A visit to this library was a privilege I could not have expected, as the villa (the Ludovisi) is entirely closed to visitors this year; but, through the proffered courtesy of his Excellency the Duke of Fiano, I was enabled to spend two mornings in turning over a number of its most curious and interesting MSS. and handling many of its rare editions, as well as to see the "Aurora" and the "Fame" of Guercino, which adorn the ceilings of two of the palace rooms through which we passed.

The Vittorio Emanuele occupies a central position in the building of the Collegio Romano, though its entrance, on a narrow side street, is rather hard to find. The first floor is used partly for the reading, reference, and catalogue rooms, while its collection of several hundred thousand volumes and pamphlets is placed largely on the two floors above. The law of 1873, suppressing the religious orders in Rome, and making over their property to the Government, led to the appropriation of various conventual libraries and to their consolidation under the title of Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele, and three years later the library was opened to the public, with a collection of 120,000 volumes arranged and catalogued. Of the sixty-nine monastic libraries forming its basis, that of the Jesuits, of 50,000 volumes, was the largest and most valuable. As might be expected from the method of its formation, the Vittorio Emanuele has a preponderance of theological works and a great many duplicates. I was told that there were as many as thirty or forty copies of some works, and I could easily believe it as I looked at the rows of duplicates lining the corridors and occupying the whole of several rooms, both shelves and floor. Order is rapidly being brought out of this chaos, however, and the library intends before long to publish a list of its duplicates, with a view to disposing of them. As there are many desirable and rare works among them, the opportunity will be an interesting one for collectors.

Other prominent features of the library are its collection of Chinese and Japanese books, the cataloguing of which is soon to be undertaken by one of the professors of the University; of Aldines and Elzevirs; of bibliography; and of works concerning the "Risorgimento Italiano," as the gradual emergence of united Italy from its long complication of disorders is called. A fund, formerly of 4,000 lire and now of 2,000 per year, has been provided for the growth of this last collection. Especial treasures of the library are a copy of Petrarch's Sonnets, of St. Augustine's 'De Civitate Dei,' and of Tacitus, all of Venice, 1470, from the press of Vindelinus de Spira. The only palimpsest is one of St. Augustine over Pliny, which is somewhat injured by an unsuccessful attempt to restore the original. A case that especially interested me was one containing old printed copies of pasquinades. A copy of the "Trionfi" of Petrarch contained a curious illustration in xylography, thought to be the earliest attempt at that kind of printing.

Ninety-four rooms of the Vittorio Emanuele are devoted to its collection, many of them, however, being small rooms in which only special collections are placed. Bound periodicals and works in process of publishing have separate rooms assigned them. The usual arrangement of the main library is by form rather than subject-matter. The general reading-room was fairly well filled at the hour at which I visited it, eleven A. M. One of the tables was reserved for women, but was not occupied at the moment. The library has, in all its public rooms together, about three hundred places for readers and students, according to its report of 1893. The periodical-room is devoted entirely to the use of current periodicals, of which 349 may be found in this room. I noticed, among those in English, the *Nineteenth Century* and the *Contemporary Review*. Two hundred and nine periodicals in English are reported as possessed by the library, but as no distinction is made in the report between bound sets and current subscriptions, this number must represent both.

The reference-room is chiefly for professors, literary men, and the more serious class of students. Its shelves are full of works of reference, to which visitors may help themselves, and an attendant is always present to give assistance if needed. Not more than three or four persons were seated at the two long tables in this attractive room, and the perfect silence attested their absorption in their work. The bibliographical room, opening out of this, contained a good working collection of bibliography, including various semi-trade publications. I missed, however, such works as Cushing's 'Anonyms' and 'Pseudonyms,' though the similar work of Halkett and Laing for English literature stood on the shelves. The 'American Catalogue' and 'Poole's Index' with its continuations held a prominent place, however. I have noticed in booksellers' shops here that the 'English Catalogue' and the *Publishers' Circular* seem to be the only source of information as to books printed in English; so that an American book, unless reprinted in England, would be quite unknown to dealers here. When one considers, also, that the editions of American authors chiefly *en évidence* on this side are those of the Tauchnitz Library, under the head of "British Authors," and of the "English Library" of Heinemann & Co., it is not to be wondered at that there should be a certain doubt and haziness in the minds of the Continental peoples as to American achievements in literature.

In the cataloguing-rooms I found exemplified the use of the Leyden catalogue to a greater extent than I had yet seen it. Three rooms are already devoted to the catalogue itself, the walls being lined with the small books containing the cards, while the entrance-room is for the use of persons applying for books. The Leyden books can be opened at the back, and fresh cards inserted in the proper places without difficulty, as most persons familiar with library systems know. The shelves are labelled with syllables indicating the contents of the book standing above each label; and the book itself, with a number indicating its place on the shelves. "But when these books are full?" I asked. "Ah, then," with a shrug, "another room!" And therein lies the objection, not only to Leyden, but to all card catalogues. It was gratifying to see the facility with which people used the system, several men and two women being engaged in consulting the catalogue during the short time that I remained in the room. Having made a list of the books wanted and given it in at the desk, the applicant retires to the reading-room or reference-room, as the case may be, and waits for his books to be brought. If he intends to come in the evening, he must engage his books during the day, as no books are brought from the collection in the evening. This is owing to the difficulty of providing artificial light for so large a building, and to the reduced number of attendants on duty in the evening.

More than 156,000 volumes were given to more than 88,000 readers during the year 1892, from the latest report. For reading away from the library something over 7,000 volumes were lent, while 207 were received from other libraries as loans. When I asked in regard to the method of obtaining books for home reading, the usual reply was given, "There are many formalities to be gone through," and I found, as I supposed, that the rules in force at the library of St. Mark were the same as here. Owing to some ambiguity in the printed rules, I find I minimized the difficulties, in my letter from Venice, in stating that citizens did not require a guarantor in order to draw books for home use. The rule for them is the same as for strangers, except that their guarantor may be any one of a long list of officials named, while strangers are limited to their consul or his representative.

Fifty-three thousand lire was the sum expended on books in 1892. The exchange of Government publications with other countries is a source of growth to the Vittorio Emanuele, and the long rows of our own sheep-bound documents were almost the only American publication of any extent that I observed on the shelves. The library is also one of those designated by the Government as repositories for one copy each of every work printed in Italy. As I made the rounds of the many rooms under the able conduct of Signor Luciani, conservator of MSS., I was continually impressed with the work that had been accomplished in only twenty years in making a well-rounded collection out of such a confusion of material, and in informing the whole with so modern and progressive a spirit.

The Vatican Library, as shown to strangers, is apparently "'Hamlet' with *Hamlet* left out," as, with the exception of a few MS. trea-

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sures, shown under glass, there is no collection of books or MSS. visible. But the entire walls of the long rooms traversed are bordered with closed cases filled with *codici*, to the presence of which the custodian testifies by occasionally opening one of the doors. But admission, even to this part of the library, seems to go by favor. One party is admitted, the next is told that the rooms are not open to visitors. On comparing experiences with various other persons, some of whom had and some of whom had not been allowed to enter, we found it impossible to guess at the principle of selection influencing the custodians, and contented ourselves with being thankful that we had been among the elect. Of the treasures exhibited in this part of the library a brief list may be given, little idea as it can yield of the impression made by the sight of them. There were letters written by Luther, by Henry VIII., and by Anne Boleyn, the juxtaposition suggesting the whole drama of the English Reformation; a MS. of Thomas Aquinas; an illuminated sixth-century MS. copy of the 'Æneid'; a copy of Pliny's 'Natural History,' opened at a page illustrated by Raphael; a splendid breviary belonging to Matthias Corvinus, the old book-collecting King of Hungary; the famous Codex Vaticanus; and St. Augustine's Commentary on the Psalms over Cicero's 'Republic'—a most interesting palimpsest.

Fascinating as this part of the Vatican collection is, it was not new to me, and was not the part I was most desirous of seeing, and, after having succeeded in finding the prefect, Monsignor Carini, I had no difficulty in obtaining entrance to the Biblioteca Leonina, as the new part of the library is called. The entrance is through the courtyard of the palace and up two flights of stairs, bringing one to an anteroom lined with portraits of the cardinal librarians of the past, among which are some very fine faces. In conversation with Monsignor Carini, before visiting the library, he remarked that it is only two or three years since it was thrown open unreservedly to students, having been regarded by previous pontiffs as their private library. The alacrity with which the privileges now offered have been seized upon by students from all over the world is very gratifying to Pope Leo and to the entire administration, of which Cardinal Capecelatro, Archbishop of Capua, is the head. The prefect added that women were not yet admitted to the library as students, but I reminded him that Miss Williams, an American woman, had published a year or two ago a study of Raphael's 'Hours' from cartoons found in the collection, through the courtesy of the authorities. He admitted that an exception had then been made, and spoke also of the case of another American woman (Mrs. Nuttall) who had been engaged in the study of some Mexican documents.

The MSS. room, in which students are occupied in consulting various *codici* from the cupboards we had previously seen, is presided over by the Prefect. If printed works bearing on the subject of a codex are required, the student may go below to the consultation-rooms, where there is a card catalogue, find what he wants, and have it taken up to the MSS. room. The library hours are from nine to one until after Easter, then from eight to twelve until July 1st, when the three months' vacation begins. It would not do to stand too long gazing into the Promised Land, already occupied by an advance-guard, and I followed the Prefect to the consultation-rooms, between the MSS. room and the Archives, where two members of his staff succeeded to the task of explanation. In order to obtain space for this library of consultation, rooms formerly used as an armory were taken, provided with an enclosed staircase leading to the MSS. room and with a passage to the Archives, protected against dampness by the construction of vaults underneath, and finally put under the protection of St. Thomas Aquinas by placing here a fine statue of him, a gift to Pope Leo. The Angelic Doctor thus became, to use the phrase of Mons. Ugolini in his interesting brochure on the library, "l'angelo tutelare della nuova biblioteca." The main rooms, seven in number, not including the Archives, are finely lighted, furnished with plenty of tables and chairs, and the books, many of them in new and handsome bindings, render the walls most attractive. Considering that the purchase of books for the express use of students of the *codici* has but recently begun, the collection is already a useful one and of considerable size. An excellent card catalogue has been made and is free to students.

The arrangement of the books on the shelves was peculiar, and offered a new method of "relative location," to use a technical term; but an account of it would be of too limited interest for insertion here. The space nearest the staircase in the library of consultation contains the works likely to be needed by students of *codici*, arranged partly by subject, partly by language, and partly by form; the remaining space being given to works needed by students of the archives, arranged by countries. These consist largely of gifts from the countries themselves, sent in answer to a general notice from the Pope of the projected opening of the library to the public and a request for State publications. England sent the Calendar of State Papers, Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland; Calendar of Documents of Scotland, etc.; but all that can be said of the American section is said by Mons. Ugolini in his brochure: "To America has been assigned a separate section near that of England." Since American scholars, and through them the people at large, have already begun to profit by the treasures of the Vatican Library, does it not seem as if an attempt should be made towards recognition of the fact?

Aside from the library of consultation, there are three rooms in this wing, containing the collections of printed books owned by the Popes previous to the founding of the new library. These are known as the Palatine, the Ara Cœli, the Zelada, and the Mai collections; the last two named from the cardinals who gathered and owned them. New rooms have been provided also for the Archives, and into one of these I was privileged to look through a glass door, with the usual result of seeing darkly. However, it was not the study-room, which is forbidden even to the eye of woman. Is it because women cannot keep a secret? There must be some important ones in all such collections, and there is no telling to what degree of deprivation Eve's unfortunate curiosity may have condemned all her daughters.

Nothing may be removed from the library even to other parts of the palace without the express permission of the Pope, and any one transgressing this rule, or intentionally mutilating a book, document, plate, etc., is subject not only to the legal penalties for such cases made and provided, but to that of major excommunication. From this not even the cardinal librarian would be exempt, should he wilfully err. This is a papal prerogative which many a librarian in our own country would like to have transferable for use in extreme cases in his own library. A telephonic apparatus for use through the library makes the work of administration easier, but seemed almost as incongruous among the *codici* as the little incandescent-wire light which I found in a side chapel at St. Mark's. The quarrel between comfort and convenience on the one hand, and picturesqueness and congruity on the other, is likely to continue, however, during the next century, if indeed all the picturesqueness be not dead long before the century closes.

MARY W. PLUMMER.

PRINCE EUGENE.—II.

PARIS, December 18, 1894.

AFTER the departure of Murat, Prince Eugene assumed the heavy task of representing the Emperor in Germany. He had already many doubts as to the fidelity of the Austrians and the Saxons; he was uneasy about Italy, uneasy about the health of his wife. Marshal Ney, after his great effort in Russia, had left the army; many generals had gone back to France; the troops were utterly demoralized. Napoleon wrote letter after letter urging Eugene to keep and garrison all the strongholds—Cüstrin, Glogau, Spandau; but the Russian armies were slowly advancing, and Prussia was all ready to join their cause. He was fortunate enough, before leaving for Italy, to take part (and a very important part) in the battle of Lützen. Napoleon placed under his orders all the troops which were in Italy and the Illyrian provinces. Eugene left Dresden, stopped a moment at Munich, and six days afterwards found at Milan his wife and his children—Joséphine, already six years old, Eugénie, and Auguste.

Napoleon's position was becoming more and more difficult. Murat was on the point of joining the Allies; the King of Bavaria had already done so, and sent Prince Thurn und Taxis to his son-in-law, offering him, if he would join the cause of the Allies, the crown of Italy—a tempting offer to a man of thirty-two, who must have felt that Napoleon would in the end succumb before the coalition. But Eugene would not abandon the French cause; he refused the proposition made to him. He wrote from Verona, November 29, 1813, to his sister, Queen Hortense (married to Louis, the King of Holland): "An Austrian *parlementaire* asked, at our outpost, permission to hand me very important papers. I had just mounted. I went and found an aide-de-camp of the King of Bavaria, who had been under my orders in the late campaign. He was sent to make me the finest propositions for myself and my family, and the King assured me that the Allies were willing to guarantee me the kingdom of Italy. All this was seasoned with many protestations of friendship. It would have been very seductive for anybody but myself." His wife, Princess Augusta, had ceased to have any direct relations with her own family since Bavaria had declared war against France.

The campaign of 1813 was the closing chapter in Eugene's military career. While some of the Emperor's lieutenants were beaten in Germany, Eugene achieved successes over the Austrians in Italy, and maintained all his possessions. Napoleon, who was fighting in France itself against overwhelming forces, never gave Eugene positive orders to join him in France. The latter was consequently in great embarrassment, as Murat was preparing to take arms against Napoleon. He wrote to the Em-

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peror asking for positive orders. Napoleon told him to retreat on the Alps in case Murat should declare war against France. Eugene began at once a retrograde movement, but Murat did not formally come out. The order which Eugene had received was conditional; nevertheless, Napoleon blamed Eugene for not having properly interpreted it. Eugene was very much grieved on hearing of Napoleon's anger. Thiers, in his 'History of the Empire,' says: "Napoleon recalled Prince Eugene to France only at the end of January, when the Prince was engaged in the most difficult operations, and could retreat only after a victory. He could not be in Lyons before the end of March, and at that moment Napoleon must be conqueror or vanquished. [The Allies had determined to make a winter campaign.] Besides, this retreat was the voluntary abandonment of Italy—that is to say, the loss of a pledge which, in the Congress at Châtillon, was to be of the highest value. Though Napoleon was fighting now only for the line of the Rhine, to have in his hands the Mincio and the Po, and to keep them firmly, was a way of making easier the concession of the Rhine by way of compensation."

Napoleon had become so suspicious that he forbade the Vice-Queen to remain in Italy for her approaching confinement; she intended to remain at Monza, but received an order to go to Paris. "I am indignant," she writes to Eugene on the 19th of February, 1814, "and I don't wonder people abandon Napoleon. Could anybody be more ungrateful? You, who sacrifice everything for him, who do wonders, receive only reproaches. . . . But nothing ought to hinder us from following the path of virtue and honor to the last day of our life." She evidently sees the end coming, and speaks of going to America with her husband, for "she is truly disgusted with the great things of this world." It is interesting to find Napoleon, in the midst of his extraordinary campaign in France, marching between Blücher and Schwarzenberg, fighting at Laon, at Craonne, yet finding time to write from Soissons to Eugene (March 12, 1814):

"My son, I have a letter from you and one from the Vice-Queen, both extravagant to the last degree. You must have lost your heads. It was from a sentiment of dignity that I desired that the Vice-Queen should come to Paris for her confinement, and I knew her too well to think that she would like to be in that state in the midst of Paris. I might have written before, but then Paris was threatened; since it is so no longer, nothing is more simple. . . . It is not flattering to our age that your answer to the King of Bavaria should have procured for you the esteem of all Europe; as for myself, I cannot pay you any compliment, as you have merely done your duty, which is a simple thing."

Napoleon had perhaps a right to write in this style to his adopted son, to the man who owed everything to him; he was mistaken when he thought that Paris was safe. Eugene gained a battle over the Austrians under Bellegarde on the Mincio. On the 15th of February, Murat threw off the mask and declared war on France. Fouché had been his counsellor, and had secretly seen him at Modena; Fouché had also seen Eugene. He says in his Memoirs, which are now rare: "Eugene confessed to me that Murat had secretly offered to divide Italy with him, after having sent away the French troops, and that he had repulsed this extravagant offer; that his declaration of war threw him (Eugene) into the greatest possible embarrassment, and that he did not think that he could hold his position long if Murat helped the Austrians with any spirit."

The first successes of Napoleon kept Murat for some time undecided, but after a while his troops advanced. The Vice-Queen was obliged to leave Milan and to shut herself up in the fortress of Mantua, as she was very near her confinement. Soon after her departure, Eugene received the news of the capitulation of Paris. All was now over. Napoleon signed his abdication at Fontainebleau; in this act of abdication he renounced the thrones of France and of Italy, and stipulated in the treaty of the 10th of April that a suitable establishment should be made by the Allied Powers for his adopted son in Italy. The King of Bavaria wrote to Eugene, April 11, 1814: "The Allies wish you well, my dear Eugene." On the 13th of April the Princess was delivered of her fifth child, a princess, in Mantua. What was to become of Eugene? He concluded an armistice with Bellegarde, and made solemn adieux to his French troops, who were sent back to France. He took leave of the Italians, and reminded them that he had been their ruler for nine years; he then left with his wife and children for Munich, where his father-in-law had offered him a shelter.

Eugene, in the new circumstances in which he was placed, found a generous and warm support in the Emperor Alexander of Russia. Leaving his wife and children in Munich, he set out alone for France, at the call of his mother, Josephine. He wrote on the 9th of May to his wife:

"My good Augusta, I arrived this morning at Malmaison very early. I found the Emperor and my sister [Hortense] in very good health. . . . I could not come here without presenting myself to the King of France after an authorization to appear at the Tuileries. Louis XVIII. received me very well, and inquired after you with much interest. . . . But now to our own affairs. We must not expect to be very well treated. They all want to divide the cake among themselves."

Eugene, we must say frankly, falls from his high pedestal of a hero in this new period which follows the abdication of Napoleon. It is said that when he was introduced to Louis XVIII., he was announced as the Marquis de Beauharnais, and that Louis XVIII. interfered and said to his gentleman in waiting: "Say Prince Eugene." The recognition of Eugene as a Prince, the kindness shown to him by the Emperor Alexander, the favor shown to Queen Hortense, who was recognized as Duchess of Saint-Leu, with a pension of 400,000 francs a year, make one think of certain verses which are found in one of Victor Hugo's poems:

"Et battez-vous pour des Altesses
Qui se feront des politesses
Pendant que vous, vous pourrirez?"

Eugene was certainly a good husband and father, and thought much of his family. His fame would have something more poetical about it if he had tied himself body and soul to the man who was his adopted father, and who had lifted him to his own Olympus. We can understand easily what the feelings of Napoleon were when, during the Hundred Days, Prince Eugene remained neutral, and did not join a cause which was thought desperate.

When Josephine died at Malmaison, the Emperor Alexander was at her death-bed with Eugene and Queen Hortense. They buried her in the little church at Rueil, and on her monument may be read these simple words: "À Joséphine—Eugène, Hortense." During the Hundred Days Napoleon paid a visit to Malmaison. Eugene was then at Vienna, where the European Congress had met and was holding its sittings. The Allies only half trusted him, and he writes to his wife that he has spies round him. By the protection of Alexander, Eugene was allowed afterwards to live in Munich with his family, while the castle of Bayreuth was prepared for him. After the downfall of Napoleon he became the Duke of Leuchtenberg. Napoleon mentioned him with affection in his will, and left him the golden candlestick which he used at Saint Helena. Eugene lived now entirely for his family; he had in his palace a room in which he preserved carefully all the objects which Napoleon had given him.

Prince Eugene died on the 21st of February, 1824. His monument, in white marble, was made by Thorwaldsen, and on the cross which surmounts it were engraved the two French words, "Honneur et fidélité." His eldest daughter, Joséphine, had become in his lifetime Queen of Sweden. Two years after his death, the second daughter, Eugénie, married the reigning Prince Frederic of Hohenzollern-Hechingen; the third became the wife of Dom Pedro, Emperor of Brazil. His eldest son, Auguste, married Doña Maria de Gloria, Queen of Portugal, but died of consumption at the age of twenty-four. The second son married the daughter of the Emperor Nicholas, the Grand Duchess Maria of Russia, and was made Imperial Highness. The son of this Duke is the present Duke of Leuchtenberg.

Correspondence.

CURRENCY REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I break silence so far as to give expression to reflections which I hear on all sides?

Mr. Carlisle has prepared a bill which involves nothing less than a revolution in our whole system of currency. Why should that bill be left to find its way to Congress through the roundabout channel of a standing committee? Why should the conduct of that bill in the House be left to Mr. Springer, member from a district in Illinois, instead of the responsible head of the national finances? Why should the debate proceed from the point of view of local, party, and private interests, without the intervention of any person representing the whole country, the administrative system, or the Treasury? Why is the Secretary of the Treasury confined to buttonholing members or dancing attendance in the lobby?

If Mr. Carlisle could stand up before 356 men and show the country that he was master of his subject, had thought out and was prepared to meet every objection and argument, his bill probably would (and there would be good reason why it should) pass into law. If, on the other hand, he was brought to confusion and self-contradiction, showing both ignorance and incapacity, the President would be obliged to accept his resignation and take some other man—probably that member of the party who had shown himself strongest in debate, and who would gladly resign his membership for the honor, even though the chances were of his speedily losing both and being sent to join Mr. Carlisle. By and by a man would appear who could hold his own against all comers, precisely as if the object sought were a champion billiard-player or prize-fighter, and then the applause and outcry of the whole country would compel Congress to adopt his views.

All this seems so simple and obvious that most people conclude that there must be some

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fatal constitutional objection. There is none at all except the obstinacy with which Congress clings to its usurpation of all the powers of government. The 356 equal members don't want to see anybody admitted who holds a place superior to theirs; to give the executive any share in the Government except that of a blind instrument to carry out their commands; to see anybody representing the interest of the whole country coming to interfere with the private schemes and party combinations which are their very reason of existence. The fact will have to be faced that the interest of the country and the interest of Congress under its present methods are diametrically opposed. The greatest political problem of the future, far overshadowing in importance the currency or the tariff or civil-service reform, is which of these interests is going to prevail.

If the President would send a message to Congress asking that the Senate committee report of February 4, 1881, should be put into practice, or even that the Secretary of the Treasury should be allowed to develop his plans in public debate in the House, he would do the country a political service such as no President has done since Abraham Lincoln. If Congress was still sulky and obstinate, what finer issue could there be to take to the country in the next Presidential campaign? G. B.

Boston, December 22, 1894.

EXPLORATIONS IN CRETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Halbherr returned to Rome this week after an absence of an entire year in Crete, where, as is known to many of your readers, he has been engaged in archæological work for the American Institute of Archæology. I have had the pleasure of examining some of the objects found, the drawings of many others, topographical plans of several ancient sites that have been carefully studied, and the copies of some two hundred inscriptions found; and I feel fully justified in saying that the results of the year's explorations are greater than have ever before been secured by any archæologist in Crete, except by Prof. Halbherr himself in his earlier labors, and even these are surpassed by the variety of the present harvest and by the lapse of time over which it extends. His inscriptions form a series from about six centuries before Christ on to Christian times, while the other objects go back to the second millennium before our era and close with imperial Rome. Those who have looked to Crete as a necessary factor in the solution of the question of prehistoric Greece and the early civilization of the Levant will find here much food for study and comparison.

A short résumé may be of interest. Among the vases from various sites, those of the so-called Theran type appear to be the earliest; then follow the Mycenæan, in varying stages, from the earliest till they mass into the geometric style and advance towards archaic Greek. Some of the terra-cotta statuettes present a peculiar stamp which Prof. Halbherr inclines to assign to the Eteocretans; others repeat the well-known attitude of the Cypriote goddess. A number of steatite stones, apparently employed as amulets, are of an extremely archaic cast, and some of them are incised, on one or more faces, with figures and marks, which will be studied in connection with the theory of a prehistoric hieroglyphic and syllabic system of writing in Crete. These stones were employed also in the historic Greek epoch, and some specimens are thought to be Gnostic. The question of burning and of inhumation in the Mycenæan period gains evidence from both sides: At Erganos, in the beehive tombs, inhumation was alone employed; elsewhere incineration was found to be usual. On two sites it was possible to discern the remains of the Mycenæan palace, though the interior plan was hardly to be traced.

Among sculptural remains are several important pieces from Gortyna, metopes of different epochs, a noble head of a goddess, and some heads of distinguished Romans. Two terra-cotta heads are of great beauty, and a relief of a dancing girl, with a somewhat novel motive, is very charming. Some other specimens are not without interest.

No inscription of great length, like the famous Code of Gortyna, has rewarded the explorer's efforts, but many are of great value from the epigraphic and dialectic point of view. Gortyna has yielded a number, of the archaic boustrophedon epoch, from the period of the closed *eta* onward, and one is boustrophedon in the Ionic alphabet. They represent decrees, laws, treaties, etc. The Macedonian has a notable series, one of which gives a fixed date (so rare in Cretan inscriptions) in the reign of Demetrius Poliorcetes. The most important belonging to the Roman days is a Latin rescript, which will be edited by Prof. Momm sen, who has taken great interest in it.

Prof. Halbherr's explorations have covered two-thirds of the eastern part of Crete, embracing twenty-one journeys from his headquarters at Candia, so that he may be said to have garnered the harvest there of archæological material so thoroughly that systematic excavations will next be necessary before much further advance can be made.

Dr. Taramelli, a pupil of Prof. Halbherr's, was of great assistance to him in the early summer, after which he travelled in western Crete until he was attacked by a fever that prostrated him completely, and he was sent home. He has now so far recovered that it is expected that he will be able to contribute an article on early pottery to the publication to be made by the Institute.

Prof. Halbherr is to be congratulated upon the success that has crowned his labors, in the midst of enormous difficulties, which he has surmounted with rare patience and sagacity. Among his other services, epigraphists will thank him for the cast which he has had taken of the great Gortynian inscription, thus securing a permanent record of it, even should the original be destroyed. A. C. Merriam.

Rome, December 6, 1894.

A CHAPTER OF ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *New England Magazine* for January, 1895, appears a most grotesque "Chapter of Alaska"; it is not only grotesque, but the writer of it has been shamefully imposed upon, for no sane man, knowing the history of Charles Bryant, would attempt to place that person in the position which the author of this article does.

In the first place, Capt. Charles Bryant never placed his foot on Alaskan soil (nor did he ever see more of it than its shadowy outlines from the deck of a whaling vessel in the North Pacific Ocean) during the two or three cruises made in those waters, in which he sailed from Honolulu for sperm and right whales, as a ship's mate; he never commanded a whale ship in his life; as a ship's mate it was his duty every day on the cruise to enter in the log those notes of weather, whales, etc., which the owners of all whale ships required.

His first personal knowledge of the Alaskan country was gained in 1869, when he went up to that region as a special agent of the Treasury Department, in company with one Dr. H. H. McIntyre, also a special agent. These gentlemen were sent out by the Secretary of the Treasury to look into the state of affairs on the Seal Islands, which had been badly stirred up in 1868 by some greedy Americans, who threatened to exterminate the fur seals. Neither Bryant nor McIntyre knew anything about these seal islands of Alaska until they heard of them in the fall of 1868 from these American adventurers, who came down to Washington to try and get some special control of the life thereon through Congress.

These two men, Bryant and McIntyre, made their reports in the fall of 1869. These reports were not the result of any study of the seal life, but all that related to that subject in both of them was founded on a translation of Bishop Veniaminoff's account of the islands published in 1842 at St. Petersburg, which translation was read to them on the islands by a Russian Creole who had been in the service of the old Russian Fur Company.

McIntyre reported in favor of leasing the islands, and, immediately after that, resigned his position in the Treasury and entered the service of the men who were then in Washington striving to get the lease law of 1870 passed. Bryant did not so report, because Boutwell, the Secretary, did not want to have these interests of our people so leased to a private corporation. Bryant preserved a discreet silence during the contest between the Secretary and the would-be lessees, which ended in the defeat of the former; then Boutwell sent Bryant up to watch these bad men, and McIntyre in especial; and he stayed there just as long as he could stay—seven years—until Bristow removed him. Now the author of this "Chapter of Alaska" tells the readers of the *New England Magazine* that, upon the flimsy notes of whales and weather in the North Pacific made by Charles Bryant, a totally illiterate man, the argument of Charles Sumner was made in favor of the purchase of Alaska! Why, there were at that hour hundreds and hundreds of such log-books, and their writers all within reach and hail, between New London and Provincetown.

This article may have been written in good faith by Mr. C. E. Cabot; but there is scarcely a paragraph in its composition which relates to Charles Bryant that is not wholly if not partially untrue, and to those who remember Bryant in Alaska during 1869, not a line that does not provoke their mirth.

John W. Bingham.

New London, Ct., December 28, 1894.

NOBLESSE OBLIGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not know whether you have received the thanks of many of those who are especially interested in collegiate education for your vigorous condemnation of the spirit among faculties and students which makes the present abuses in athletics possible. You at any rate deserve the gratitude of every one who believes that the most necessary outcome of a young man's education, without which all else must be "as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal," is that spirit which makes him fear to do anything and everything to secure

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victory, and gives him the ability to accept defeat quietly when victory cannot come to him through superior skill. It is a lack of the capacity for moral scorn which is really at the root of the trouble. This is clearly seen by your correspondent "A. H.," in No. 1537 of the *Nation*, and I dare say that, like myself, many a college professor could give other instances to parallel those which he has adduced.

But the fault is by no means entirely on the part of the students. It is not easy to make all college presidents and professors perceive that it is a serious moral offence for a base runner to skip "second" or "third" when the umpire does not chance to see him, or for their own "nine" or "eleven" to smuggle in an expert player who is not really a member of their college. On the part of older men this obtuseness may arise from a lack of familiarity in their earlier years with good sport, and a consequent ignorance of the principle that sport ceases to be sport when it involves any evasive or ungentlemanly conduct. Of course, too, the unfortunate competition for students between many of our colleges furnishes a temptation to overlook secret offences, and makes anything but concerted action on the part of the faculties to remedy these abuses extremely difficult. Hence, like "A. H.," every one hears, "They all do it if they can." In regard to these violations of the spirit of good sport, I believe the lack of moral sensitiveness is less common among our younger teachers, and, if this be so, there is hope that a higher tone in athletics may gradually come to prevail. At present, however, there is a crying need in our education of *noblesse oblige*.—Yours truly, X.

USE OF THE WORD "SPINSTER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following is copied (in response to "A. D. H.'s" inquiry in the *Nation* of December 20, 1894) from the British *Historical Manuscripts Commission Report*, No. 10, appendix, part iv., at page 468:

"Entertaining evidence respecting an obsolete use of the familiar word 'spinster,' that has hitherto escaped the curiosity and vigilant inquisitiveness of our antiquaries. There is no need to remind the educated reader of the etymology of the designation that has long been regarded as applicable only to unmarried women of the lower social grades. Every one is aware that, so long as the spindle ranked with the spear, 'spinster' was the appropriate designation of gentlewomen whose knightly brothers were no less generally described by a title pointing to their dexterity with the lance or the sword. Every one knows how Sir Henry Spelman, in the 'Glossarium Archæologicum,' accounts for women of the nobler sort being described as 'spinsters' in legal documents, and how the famous antiquary commemorates the knight who caused his eleven sons and eleven daughters to be painted upon his tomb, the men girt with their swords and the women represented with their spindles. No less generally is it known that, when the familiar designation of a gentlewoman, the old equivalent of the Latin 'generosa,' was falling out of fashion in James the First's time, Chief Justice Coke robbed the time-honored term of its ancient dignity, and quickened its downward course from the gentry to the populace, by declaring authoritatively: '*Generosus* and *Generosa* are good additions; and, if a gentlewoman be named spinster in any original writ, etc., appeale, or indictmente, she may abate and quash the same; for she hath as good a right to that addition as Baronesse, Viscountesse, Marchionesse, or Duchesse have to theirs.' But what few people know, what most readers—probably every reader—of this page will learn from it for the first time, is that Elizabethan gentlewomen in some parts of England were too proud of the homely designation to relinquish it on marriage, and that it was the practice of legal draughtsmen to apply the term to married no less than to unmarried gentlewomen. In the presentments (23 Elizabeth) of persons of the age of sixteen or upwards, for neglecting to attend church or chapel, the searcher of the Essex muniments comes upon the names of the following ladies, as spinsters *and* wives:

"(1.) Margarett Tirrell, spinster, otherwise styled Margarett Tirrell, wife of Thomas Tirrell, esquire (the words of Latin record being Margaretta Tirrell, spinster, *alias* dicta Margaretta Tirel uxor Thome Tirrell armigeri).

"(2.) Mary Gascoigne, spinster, otherwise styled Mary Gascoigne, wife of George Gascoigne.

"(5) Katherine Mompson, spinster, otherwise styled Katherine Mompson, wife of . . . . Mompson, gentleman.

"(8.) Maria, Lady Petre, spinster, otherwise styled Maria, Lady Petre, wife of Sir John Petre, of Westhorndon, knt. (the words of the Latin record being alias dicta Maria domina Petre uxor Johannis Petre de Westhorndon predicta militis).

"(9) Edmund Danyell, esquire, and his wife, Margarett Danyell, spinster.

"Sometimes in these presentments women, described as spinsters, are described also as wives of men respecting whose calling and quality there is a significant silence. In other cases the spinsters are described as the wives of men who are described in terms leaving no room for doubt they were not of rank to impart gentility to their wives. The presentments also abound with cases of women, married to yeomen, mechanics, tradesmen, labourers, and other persons of ungentle quality, who are described as wives without being at the same time styled spinsters. It follows that gentle wives of ungentle men held to their right to be styled spinsters, as an indication of their gentility by birth; that so late as the twenty-third year of Elizabeth 'spinster' was the English equivalent of the Latin 'generosa.' But already the worshipful designation had lost much of its ancient force, and though not fallen was falling into disrepute. In the following reign and generation, Coke's dictum so effectually degraded the name from the dignity accorded to it by the usage of successive centuries, from the days of Alfred to the days of Elizabeth, that Thomas Blount (author of the 'Glossographia or Dictionary of Hard Words,' 1656, and the 'Law Dictionary,' 1671) knew nothing more of the word, apart from its etymological force, than that it was 'the addition usually given to all unmarried women, from the Viscount's daughter downward.' On ceasing to be a sign of gentility, the designation was dropt by gentlewomen on marriage even if they had borne it in their maidenly estate. On becoming merely the equivalent of 'single woman' it was held full cheap by women of all grades, whether matrons or maids.

"I am at the more pains to call attention to this recovery of a long lost signification of the word 'spinster' because it is something more important than a mere antiquarian curiosity. It has for so long a time been the practice of genealogists, and other serious historians, to regard spinsters as necessarily without husbands and lawful issue, that it is well to assure them spinsters could also be matrons and mothers in the sixteenth and earlier centuries." * * *

Richmond, Virginia, December 22, 1894.

Notes.

A memoir of the late Dr. John Lord, the historical lecturer, is in course of preparation by the Rev. Alex. S. Twombly, D.D., of Newton, Mass., who desires the loan of letters and other material for his purpose.

A committee of Harvard alumni has been formed to establish a suitable memorial of the late Dr. Andrew P. Peabody. Subscriptions of ten dollars or less will be welcomed, and may be sent to the treasurer, Mr. Amory A. Lawrence, No. 68 Chauncy Street, Boston.

The twelfth General Centennial Catalogue of the Alumni and Officers of Columbia College forms a volume of 620 pages, octavo, and in addition to the customary matter of such documents contains a Locality-Index, alphabetical by States or countries and places, revealing the whereabouts of more than 8,000 living alumni. These addresses are first given in connection with each name under the several divisions of graduates—arts, medicine, law, mines, political science. A labor so great and so disinterested will not fail to be appreciated by the great body thus brought in touch with one another, as well as by a much wider circle of friends and associates who lack the college tie. We ought also to mention the condensed biographical data as more extensive than ordinary. The Catalogue is sent postpaid on receipt of a dollar for paper copies, or a dollar and a half for cloth-bound, by the committee, Prof. J. Howard Van Amringe and John B. Pine.

Macmillan & Co.'s announcements for the opening months of the new year embrace a "Rural Science Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell; 'The Aims of Literary Study,' by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; 'Mental Development in the Child and the Race,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; Borgeaud's 'Adoption and Amendment of Constitutions in Europe and America,' translated by Prof. C. D. Hazen of Smith College; 'A Student's Manual of English Constitutional History,' by Dudley J. Medley; 'The Life and Letters of R. W. Church, Dean of St. Paul's'; 'Summer Studies of Birds and Books,' by W. Warde Fowler; 'Alexander III. of Russia,' by Charles Lowe; a 'Life of Adam Smith,' by John Rae; Paulsen's 'Character and Historical Development of the Universities of Germany,' translated by Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia College; Rätzel's 'Völkerkunde,' translated by A. J. Butler, in three volumes, illustrated; and 'Rational Building,' the article *Construction* translated by Geo. Martin Huss from Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionnaire Raisonné de l'Architecture Française.' Just ready is Plato's 'Republic,' edited by the late Prof. Jowett and Prof. Lewis Campbell. The third edition of Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' is to appear next week. Noteworthy also is "a series of reprints of famous works of fiction which may fairly be considered to have taken an established place in English literature," each to contain "a preparatory notice written by a critic of distinction," and about forty full-page and other illustrations. Maria Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee' head the list.

W. B. Clarke & Co., Boston, are putting out the *Aeronautical Annual* for 1895, edited by James Means, with many curious illustrations.

'American Charities,' by Prof. Amos G. Warner, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

'The Evolution of Modern Capitalism: A Study of Machine Production,' by John A. Hobson (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners), is a labored defence of state socialism as a phase of the evolution of society. In fact, the author maintains that those who protest against the increase of governmental control over industry are bringing "an indictment against a natural order of events, on the ground that nature has taken a wrong road of advancement." It is obvious that this principle involves many important, not to say extraordinary, consequences, which it is unnecessary to specify. Although argument of this kind can hardly be taken seriously, yet there is a great deal in Mr. Hobson's essay that is suggestive and interesting, and many of the secondary results of the application of machinery to production are impressively stated. Especially noteworthy is the analysis of the

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waste involved in competition, on account of the excessive increase of the means of production.

Less deserving of attention is Mr. J. Stephen Jeans's 'Trusts, Pools, and Corners' (London: Methuen & Co.), which, indeed, contains little more than is known to any diligent reader of the daily newspapers, and is, so far as concerns our American combinations, very much behind the times.

A convenient and useful as well as timely little book is 'The Federal Income Tax Explained,' by Messrs. John M. Gould and George F. Tucker (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The authors start from the fact that the phraseology of the law of 1894 follows wherever possible the language of the similar statute of war-times. As the words, phrases, and clauses of the latter have been passed upon and settled in meaning by the courts, the utility is obvious of a collection of nearly two hundred of the cases in which the terms of the law were brought up for adjudication.

'Electricity at the Columbian Exposition,' by J. P. Barrett, Chief of Department (Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.), which is prefaced by a full-page portrait of the author, does not claim to be more than a compilation of the circulars of the exhibitors. It is profusely illustrated with photogravures of electrical apparatus which give one an excellent idea of the external forms of electrical machinery exhibited at the Fair. The scope of the book did not permit of the introduction of diagrams and representations of electrical connections which might be desired by the student. The author calls attention to the remarkable fact that all the lighting of the Columbian Exposition, for decoration as well as for service, and the operation of all machinery, was done, for the first time in the history of expositions, by electricity.

Mr. William Arthur Price, in his useful 'Treatise on the Measurement of Electrical Resistance' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), points out that the measurement of electrical resistance bears a relation to electricity analogous to that of the comparison of masses in quantitative chemistry. Mr. Price has had a large experience in the construction of resistance coils, and his treatise contains the results of his experience in winding, insulating, measurement of temperature coefficients, and calibration of coils. English forms of resistance-coils and boxes and measuring instruments are given, to the exclusion of German and American designs. The rapid development of practical applications of electricity has led in America to the improvement of many forms of electrical measurement apparatus. In a new edition it would be desirable to mention Weston's ammeters and voltmeters, Prof. Anthony's arrangement of coils in a resistance box, and Prof. Carhart's modification of the Clark cell. A full index would increase the value of Mr. Price's work.

A notable contribution to the scientific study of forestry is Somerville's translation of Prof. Robert Hartig's 'Text-book of the Diseases of Trees,' revised and edited by Dr. H. Marshall Ward (Macmillan). Hartig has been studying the diseases of trees for more than twenty years, has published a good many papers on the subject, and has at last produced the systematic treatise of which the present volume is a translation. The diseases of trees are here classified as (1) those produced by flowering plants, (2) those produced by cryptogams, (3) such as result from wounds, (4) those due to unfavorable conditions of the soil, and (5) those due to unfavorable atmospheric conditions. Fully two-thirds of the book is devoted to diseases caused by fungi, and about forty-five pages to wounds, only two pages of which are occupied with a consideration of defoliation of trees by insects. Injuries from sun-cracks, from frost, and from fire are duly considered, and the work closes with a classified list of diseases. It must be remembered, in using this book, that it deals mainly with European trees and their diseases, and that it is altogether probable that in America, as we have our own silva, so we may have some of our own diseases which affect our trees.

Under the title of 'Les Merveilles de la Flore Primitive' (Geneva: Georg & Co.; Paris: Georges Carré), M. A. Froment gives a discussion of the probable character of the vegetation of the carboniferous age. He speaks familiarly about the carboniferous ferns, calamites, lepidodendrons, etc., and tells us that the richness of the soil at that period furnished the primitive flora with mushrooms at least forty feet in diameter! He reasons from the rate of sedimentary deposit of the Nile that, to produce a coal-bearing formation of only two thousand metres, a period of 980,000 years must be allowed. The connection between the delta of the Nile and the coal-deposits of Europe and America is not very clear; but the process of argument may perhaps be guessed at by reading later on in the same pamphlet a little essay, in which is a discussion of the Australian continent considered (hypothetically, of course) as a fallen meteoric mass! "Little by little, as the weight and volume of the planets increase, their equilibrium is disturbed, and in the course of time, after milliards of ages, the face of our solar system will be changed." The sun will gradually grow cold, the swollen planets will circle round it with whirlpool speed, and the smaller will become the prey of the larger. "Quel épouvantable cataclysme!"

M. Paul Stapfer has written the latest study of France's great moralist, 'Montaigne' (Paris: Hachette), and, as might be expected from the writer and the subject, the result is most satisfactory. The book reads well, a prime requisite in a volume treating of so easy and fascinating a *causeur* as Montaigne. The moralist is studied from as unconventional a point of view as possible; M. Stapfer desiring not to reproduce and perpetuate the legends current about Montaigne, but to present as real and faithful a portrait of the man as is possible nowadays. That Montaigne was something more and something else than the lazy and selfish sceptic that most people see in him, is what M. Stapfer sets out to prove in his two hundred very interesting pages. And that the complex nature of Montaigne, which has baffled and misled many a critic, is, on the whole, well and clearly analyzed in this book, that the man is better revealed, that his work is more readily understood, is the best testimony one can bear to the excellence of M. Stapfer's conscientious and able study.

M. Georges Pellissier's 'Nouveaux Essais de Littérature Contemporaine' consists, with the exception of the essay on Vigny, of a number of reviews of works no longer recent, by Zola, Bourget, Loti, Lemaître, and some others. The article on Vigny is a discussion of Brunetière's lecture in his course on the evolution of lyric poetry in France in the 19th century. This is by far the most interesting essay in the book; its more general character gives it a value which the review of specific works lacks.

Two capital novels come from the press of Paul Ollendorff, the one 'La Chevelure de Madeleine,' by M. Jean Rameau, the other 'Un Roman de Femme,' by M. Pierre Maïl. Both may be read in the home circle, both are interesting and even fascinating, full of the pure breath of nature, clean, and free from the exaggeration of psychological analysis so much in vogue among certain writers. M. Rameau takes us into the heart of the Pyrenees, and introduces us to an abbé who is not a saint, but a mortal, a charming girl who knows her own mind without subtly questioning it, a frank young fellow who is neither wholly good nor very bad, and a curious study of a peasant sorcerer. M. Maïl's story is of the Breton coast and its wild storms, and the contrast of the struggle in a man's heart against a love which he ought to yield to at once. There are superb descriptive pages in both books—sea and mountain charm equally.

Part viii. of the "Anecdota Oxoniensia" (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) entitled 'Hibernica Minora,' is edited by Kuno Meyer. Its contents are motley enough. The first section, pp. 1-37, consists of a fragment of an Irish commentary on the Psalter. The manuscript is probably of the fifteenth century, but the original of which it is a corrupt transcript may have been composed in the eighth century. Meyer gives the Irish text, with variants; also a translation, notes, and glossary. In substance, the commentary is based upon the well-known writings of Hilary, Isidor, Bede, etc. The doctrine does not differ from that of the early mediæval church. A goodly number of Old Irish forms are discernible under the scribal garb of the fifteenth century, but there are scarcely any "finds" for the etymologist or grammarian. The rest of the volume is of an altogether different order, being stories—or fragments of stories—of the great Ulster-Leinster cycle. To the reader who is familiar with Irish myth, the present collection does not offer much that is new. The most characteristic story, that of MacDáthó's Pig, is a variant of an older version in the Book of Leinster.

Part vii. of the "Anecdota" is remarkable as a specimen of Clarendon Press typography. It reproduces the contents of a Welsh manuscript of the 14th century, the types imitating or suggesting the abbreviations, the faint, retouched, or red letters, and the underlinings and interlineations of the manuscript. Yet the page is both clear and pleasing to the eye. The first 76 pp. are an *elucidarium*, or treatise upon the obscure points of theology. There is some connection between this Welsh text and an *elucidarium* in Latin (printed in the appendix), attributed by some to Lanfranc, by others to Anselm. But the Welsh can scarcely be a direct translation from the Latin. The rest of the volume consists of Welsh versions of well-known mediæval themes, such as the "Vision of Paul," the "Transitus Mariæ," the "Epistola Presbyteri Joannis," etc.

Part ix. of the "Anecdota" is more remarkable for the nature of its contents. It is the earliest known translation of the Old Testament into Basque. The translation is the work of a French-Basque Protestant clergyman, one Pierre D'Urte of St. Jean de Luz, about 1700. It comprises the whole of Genesis, and Exodus as far as xxii., 6. Internal evidence shows that it has been made neither from the Hebrew nor from the Vulgate, but from the Genevan (French) translation. The MS. is in the library of the Earl of Macclesfield, Shirburn Castle.

The distinguished German professor of political economy, Wilhelm Roscher, died June 4, 1894, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. He lived to complete the fifth and concluding

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volume of his "System der Volkswirthschaft," the manuscript of which was found on his desk and has now been published by his son, Dr. Carl Roscher, under the special title, 'System der Armenpflege und Armenpolitik' (Stuttgart: Cotta). It is the substance of lectures delivered at the University of Leipzig since 1890, and begins with an interesting introductory chapter on the pathology of poverty, followed by a discussion of the therapeutics and prophylactics of poverty, or the means employed and found most effective for its cure and prevention, such as hospitals and asylums for poor children and adults, foundling-hospitals, savings-banks, pawn-shops, coöperative stores, life and accident insurances, and similar institutions for encouraging frugality and alleviating misfortune. There is also an admirable account of the character and treatment of the poor, not only in Germany, but also in England, France, America, and other countries, to which are added some excellent observations on the evil influence of the praise of poverty by the Catholic Church, an influence that extends even to Catholic political economists like Périn, who expatiates on "le bienfait de la pauvreté," and quotes with approval the injunction of St. Francis: "Be imitators of Christ in poverty; for our Lord was born poor, lived poor, taught poverty, and died in poverty." A section of the work is also devoted to trades-unions and to the uses and abuses of international associations for promoting the interests and protecting the rights of laborers. There is a good index.

Dr. F. Liebermann's paper on "The Text of Henry I.'s Coronation Charter," which was recently read before the Royal Historical Society, has been separately printed, and will also appear in the Transactions of the Society. Henry I.'s charter was called *Magna Carta* at the beginning of the thirteenth century, if not earlier, and it exerted considerable influence upon the constitutional struggle under King John. In the twelfth century there were more than thirty originals of the charter, one addressed to each county, but these have all been lost. Dr. Liebermann, with his usual ability and industry, attempts a critical reconstruction of the document on the basis of twenty-eight ancient texts.

To the fact of the compiler's being the father of children, "aged eight and nine," we owe the 'Index to *St. Nicholas*, vols. i.-xxi.,' which Mr. W. M. Griswold, Cambridge, Mass., has just added to his famous Q. P. series. Having bought the complete set of that periodical, he determined to make it available to his young people, and now he shares the key with the public at large. We doubt if the childish age was ever thus catered to before, or if any juvenile magazine was so honored.

'A Manual of Topographic Methods,' by Henry Gannett, chief topographer, constitutes Monograph XXII. of the United States Geological Survey. It is largely occupied with technical accounts of instruments, field methods, and tables for use in computations; but the fifth chapter is of more general interest, as it concerns the sketching of maps, and the necessity of understanding something of the forms that are to be sketched. The illustrations here are from actual topographic forms, as mapped by the Survey. In several matters Mr. Gannett's terminology, arrangement, and explanations are open to criticism. It is a misuse of a technical term to say that the Great Plains on the boundary of Colorado and Kansas, at an elevation of about 14,000 feet, are "near base-level." It is not well reasoned to instance the volcanic necks of New Mexico under forms produced by uplift. "Ridge" is an unhappy name for so slight an elevation as that of a flood-plain near its stream. These, however, are small affairs compared to the inculcation of the general principle that the topographer must be well trained in the meaning of topographic forms. It is to be hoped that our scientific schools will use Mr. Gannett's monograph as a guide to better instruction of their students. We regret to note that the important subject of Inspection is dismissed in nine lines.

The Geological Survey of Alabama, under the direction of Prof. E. A. Smith, has just issued a geological map of that State which must be regarded as an important addition to our scientific cartography. The base map, on a scale of about eight miles to an inch, is compiled from the records of the Land Office and Geological Surveys in Washington. Upon this, some thirty colors give an elaborate indication of the distribution of the geological formations. The State is thus easily seen to be divided into two chief areas. A large southwestern half, of coastal formations, dips gently southward and overlaps the descending extremity of the folded rocks of the Appalachians, which occupy the smaller northeastern half. In the latter, the topographical trend is distinctly northeast and southwest; in the former, it is about northwest and southeast; this contrast being the geographical product of a great geological unconformability between the two systems of rocks here included.' A large sheet of text accompanies the map, giving a concise account of the several formations, their fossils, economic products, and soils, together with reference to the various survey reports in which they are described. We wish Prof. Smith might now direct attention to preparing, as only an experienced geologist can, a general geographical account of his State, in text, map, and pictures, which should serve as important an end in the secondary schools as his excellent geological map will serve in the universities.

Prof. M. W. Harrington, chief of the Weather Bureau, has lately issued an elaborate series of rainfall-charts of the United States in large folio form. Twelve charts give the precipitation for the months, four for the seasons, and one for the year. Then follow a number of smaller charts of snowfall, of monthly maxima and minima of rainfall, and so on. The text to accompany the charts is promised at an early date.

The late Robert Louis Stevenson's interest in Samoa, and the extraordinary influence which he exerted over the natives, are strikingly seen in one of the last incidents of his life. A few months ago some chiefs, grateful for kindness shown them by him during their imprisonment for rebellion, immediately on their release, instead of going home to their own places and families, came to him and offered to build a section of road for him as a free gift. With some reluctance, on account of their poverty and the need of their families, Mr. Stevenson consented for the sake of the good it would do to men to whom all manual labor was but recently a degradation. He explained these circumstances to some white guests who were assembled at the opening of the road, closing with these words: "It has been made for me by chiefs, some of them old, some sick, all newly delivered from a harassing confinement, and in spite of weather unusually hot and insalubrious. I have seen these chiefs labor valiantly with their own hands upon the work, and I have set up over it, now that it is finished, the name of 'The Road of Gratitude' (the road of loving hearts), and the names of those that built it." Then, turning to the chiefs, he pleaded with them to give up war and to defend their country by occupying and using it. "It is the man who makes roads, who plants food-trees, who gathers harvests, and is a profitable servant before the Lord, using and improving that great talent that has been given him in trust, that is the brave soldier; that is the true champion."

In our late notice of "Recent American Poetry" the name of the author of 'Madonna, and Other Poems' was misprinted "Merritt" for Harrison S. Morris. The error unfortunately was transferred to the index.

—A circular has been recently issued by Joseph Wright, M.A., Ph.D., Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology at Oxford, appealing for help in completing the materials for the proposed English Dialect Dictionary. The Dictionary will aim to include the complete vocabulary of all dialect words which are still in use or are known to have been in use at any time during the last 200 years. The Professor of Anglo-Saxon at Cambridge, the Rev. Walter Skeat, coöperates with Dr. Wright, and the English Dialect Society has for the last twenty years devoted its resources to the accumulation and printing of rare glossaries and unpublished collections of all kinds with a view to this comprehensive Dictionary of Dialects. Seventy volumes had been by the end of last year published by that society, and Dr. Wright has over a million slips, each dealing with one dialect word, containing the source with quotation, date, and county. A rough arrangement into alphabetical order has already been made, and those concerned—including not only Profs. Wright and Skeat, but many other specialists in England, Germany, and America—consider that it is urgently necessary to begin publication as soon as possible. Delay is dangerous, since every year makes accurate information harder to obtain. Pure dialect is rapidly disappearing, and it is therefore most important to begin publication this year if possible. Before this can be possible, however, further help in completing the material is required. Two hundred workers could in a very short time do all that is needed.

—In the collection of material two objects have to be kept in view: (1.) Every known dialect word (dialect being used in its widest sense for non-literary English) must be registered on a separate half-sheet of note-paper. This is necessary even though slang and vulgarisms may eventually be excluded from the Dictionary, and in spite of the existence of printed glossaries and word lists. (2.) A complete collection of illustrative quotations is indispensable, and correspondents are invited to send phrases actually heard from the mouths of the people. The pronunciation should be indicated. Books wholly or partially written in dialect should be carefully ransacked according to rules laid down by the editor. Finally, many novels, magazine articles, agricultural treatises, county histories, etc., contain dialect words which turn up even in newspapers and more unlikely quarters. Helpers are needed to keep a lookout for these and to make note of them with full reference to date, page, and column. *Notes and Queries* is being searched from the beginning. Readers should do nothing without first communicating with Prof. Wright, 6 Norham Road, Oxford.

—The Fifth Annual Report of the College Settlements Association announces an important step in its growth, viz., legal incorpora-

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tion under the laws of Massachusetts, with a gift of $300 as "the beginning of a permanent fund." During the year ending September, 1894, the Woman's College of Baltimore (making the twelfth college) has been admitted to corporate membership, while thirteen colleges outside of the association, including the Universities of Oxford, Paris, and Leipzig, have supplied twenty-six collegiate subscribers. At the New York settlement a healthy sign of local growth is the appearance among the juvenile organizations of the Anti-Cigarette Club and the Clean City League. These college settlements—notably the Boston one—have naturally come into very direct and sympathetic contact with "organized labor." Although the representatives of the colleges are careful to state that their effort has been "to reconcile and not antagonize classes, and always . . . to bring into closer and better understanding the ranks of labor and capital," it is certain that when a settlement becomes the headquarters for local organized labor interests, and the centre for a sort of trades union propaganda, it at least risks being misunderstood by one of the two parties in interest. The extent of actual misunderstanding will be the measure of the college women's power of conciliation. To exercise this function effectively a settlement must select its friends and speakers from among prominent business men and employers of labor, as well as from among "prominent workingmen" and professional students; this has hardly yet been done by the enthusiastic and devoted residents of Denison House. Furthermore, if college settlements are to take any helpful hand in the solution of the labor question, they must introduce a more permanent tenure of office among their rank and file. The facts needed for such work are neither garnered nor grasped in a day, nor in six months, nor mainly by feminine intuition and logic. Subtracting from the fifty-five residents at the New York Settlement those who stayed less than a month, we have twenty-one; of this remainder, six were registered for one month, thirteen from two to ten months (average six), while but two were on duty one consecutive year. Of Philadelphia's thirteen residents during twelve months, two stayed one year, two over six months, nine between one and three months, an average of less than four months. At Denison House, Boston, in close affiliation with Wellesley College, among the eighteen residents there was a similar spirit of flitting, the average residence being about four months.

—Teachers of Latin in our colleges ought to be grateful to Dr. H. W. Hayley of Harvard for having provided them with a singularly clear and useful 'Introduction to the Verse of Terence' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). In the compass of 25 pages the undergraduate can here find about all that he needs to know of the metrical construction of this poet—a subject which is always a stumbling-block to the beginner, and which is often avoided altogether by teachers—mainly, perhaps, because there has been no convenient manual in which their pupils (and themselves?) may find the needed information. This excuse no longer exists, for although the present little book is evidently the work of a finished scholar, yet its language is so simple and the principles are so plainly set forth that only the merest dullards can fail to comprehend. Dr. Hayley's modesty disclaims anything in the way of originality, but there are several places (notably his treatment of the fifth foot of the senarius) where he has discovered how to make clear, brief statements of facts in matters where there has hitherto been much darkening of counsel. The book is provided with references to larger works for more advanced students.

—The centennial of the Rutland (Vt.) *Herald* was celebrated on December 8, 1894, by the issue of a centennial number, one feature of which was a reproduction of the first number of the first volume, dated "Monday, December 8, 1794." Of the fifty newspapers in the United States a century ago, only five were published south of Pennsylvania, six in that State, ten in New York, eleven in Massachusetts; in Connecticut and New Hampshire five each. The Rutland *Herald* claims that only twelve papers—four of them in Massachusetts and three in New Jersey—have, like itself, reached the century mark. The memorial *Herald* is largely filled with accounts of the surroundings amid which it had birth and being. These details will no doubt form the basis of a better history of early Vermont than has ever been written. The latter end of the *Herald* has, however, forgotten much of its beginning. No complete file of its issues can be found at its office of publication or in Rutland. None is known to exist anywhere. Probably there was one in the newspaper collection which Henry Stevens, having spent twenty years in gathering, had brought to Montpelier and stored in the capitol—a building which was burned, with all the papers, in 1857. Vermont has since built a fireproof capitol, and treasures there whatever ancient papers are still to be obtained, but many links in the chains of issues are lacking. An instance has just come to the knowledge of the present writer. A Vermonter went to Montpelier in the course of researches which required him to examine *Spooner's Journal*, vol. xv., 1798. He sought that volume in vain throughout the State collection. Much to his surprise, it was shown him afterwards among the 8,000 bound volumes of newspapers in the rooms of the Wisconsin Historical Society.

—It can hardly be said that it was one of the greatest of Frenchmen, or of French writers, who passed away when Jean Macé died on December 13, but it was one of the most useful and helpful of men, and the author of a book which may fairly enough be called a classic. He was of modest origin, the son of a workingman, but he received a good education at the Collège Stanislas, and was for some time a professor there. Afterward he served for three years in the army; then was a private secretary; and later, in 1848, he became one of the editors of the *République*. The second of December filled him with such disgust that he left Paris and retired to a pensionnat at Beblenheim. Here he had an opportunity to study thoroughly the minds and souls of children, their likings and dislikings, and what was easy and what hard for them. From these studies, much later, sprang his books. In 1861 he published his 'Histoire d'une bouchée de pain,' a book which is known the world over. It has appeared in innumerable editions in France, and still holds its own as a favorite gift-book and school prize-book. Other works in the same special *genre*, in which success is so hard to win, followed, and none were failures. In 1864, with M. Hetzel, he founded the popular *Magasin d'éducation et de récreation*. Somewhat later he devoted himself to the work of establishing communal libraries in the Haut-Rhin, and afterwards merged this work in that of his Ligue de l'Enseignement, which is very like the work done by the University Extension in England. It aims at furnishing, by means of free libraries and public lectures, mental and moral instruction and sustenance to apprentices and workingmen of all ages and of every trade. Since this epoch the history of the Ligue has been its founder's history. It has flourished in direct proportion as republicanism has flourished in France, and is now, the *Temps* says, one of the most valuable of the influences which make for righteousness and the much-needed purification of the Republic. On the 8th of December, 1883, Jean Macé was elected irremovable Senator in the place of the Comte de Lasteyrie. He died in his eightieth year.

—A curious type of character is illustrated by a biography which recently appeared in a Russian periodical. Prince V. V. Vyazemsky, who died near Moscow in 1892, had lived for thirty years in complete solitude. He was a very wealthy landholder, the owner of several thousand serfs. He freed his serfs in 1850, and set himself to acquire the knowledge which he regarded as indispensable for his peace of mind and equanimity of soul. He put in practice the theories of Count L. N. Tolstoi long before the latter began to advocate them, or, apparently, to hold them. Close acquaintance with the laboring classes, with their mental poverty and their entire lack of spiritual interests, prompted Prince Vyazemsky to mingle with the masses as a common laborer, in the hope that he might bring to bear, even on a single one of these masses, a moral and mental influence. His wife would not listen to his "ideas," or consent to modify the thoroughly worldly life which they were leading in Moscow. They had no children; each occupied a wing of the mansion. The Prince came to the conclusion that marriage does not result in personal happiness, while it does weaken a man's mind and spiritual energies. He provided handsomely for his wife, left home without a penny in his pocket, and hired himself to a bookbinder. A year later he settled on his estate, distributed all his land among his peasants, and for thirty-five years lived in a tiny hut in the forest, which he built with his own hands. He reduced his wants to a minimum, did everything for himself, and rarely visited Moscow. He was always glad to see people when they came to him. He was an accomplished entomologist and ornithologist, was possessed of a remarkable memory, knew the poetry of Pushkin and Lermontoff by heart, had read Shakspere through several times, and had a special love for Goethe's "Faust." He put in practice all the theories now known as "Tolstoyan," and it is probable that Count Tolstoi was influenced by him, as the two men lived only sixty miles apart, and the famous author could hardly have failed to hear about Prince Vyazemsky.

AN OXONIAN'S VIEW OF HARVARD.

Harvard College by an Oxonian. By George Birkbeck Hill. Macmillan. 1894.

In many ways this is a remarkable book. It displays an open mindedness rare in any foreigner, rarest of all in an Englishman criticising America or an American institution. It has humor. It is a marvel of minute research, as any one familiar with Dr. Birkbeck Hill's edition of Boswell knew it would be. But perhaps the most remarkable quality of all in the book is the sureness of its touch: Dr. Hill, as if by instinct, goes right to the characteristic traits of Harvard, and divines the attitude of

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its professors and of the students as if he belonged interchangeably to either body. Thus to catch the atmosphere as well as the form and substance of Harvard College required special gifts, supplemented by much industry.

Not content with personal observation and questioning, Dr. Hill fitted himself by reading the various histories of Harvard, the President's Reports, and the more recent material in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine;* and then he opened a quarry of information never hitherto properly worked—the biographies of eminent Harvard men. The historian of Harvard may deem it fortunate that so many of the Americans whose lives have been worth writing were either students or teachers at Cambridge. Dr. Hill has ransacked this material, from the Life of J. Q. Adams to the 'Letters' of Lowell and the 'Reminiscences' of A. P. Peabody, and from it all he has drawn the pith, with the result that his view of Harvard is both contemporaneous and historic, both academic and personal, and that he has made a book interesting not merely to Harvard graduates, but to whoever, on either side of the Atlantic, cares for a mellow description of university life.

But of course the first consideration is that this is the work of an Oxford scholar, a man trained among other traditions and by other standards, whether of social or of scholastic life—a critic, therefore, whose opinion should have the added value due to comparison. What, then, is the estimate which Dr. Hill, and Oxford through him, sets on Harvard? In almost all cases, the verdict is surprisingly favorable. In all that relates to university organization, we infer that Dr. Hill ranks Harvard above Oxford. He lets us see—what until recently Englishmen preferred to ignore themselves and to hide from strangers—the extent which favoritism plays in the appointment of teachers, the abnormal position of the holders of fellowships, the injustice wrought by sinecures, the hypocrisy which Church-of-Englandism breeds there and elsewhere in English society. In a land where outward conformity opened the door to rich prizes, a sceptic like Thirlwall might hold a bishopric, a pagan like Jowett might be master of Balliol, without creating any remark; for conscience and conformity rarely coincide. But what American has not been astonished, after intercourse with some English don that showed him an agnostic, to find that he had subscribed to the Thirty-nine Articles? The absence of this cant at Harvard particularly struck Dr. Hill; for Harvard, he knew, sprang from a theocratic community, and did not succeed in emancipating itself from the fetters of both Church and State until thirty years ago, and only nine years ago gave up compulsory worship.

It would be a mistake, however, to imagine that the manner of appointments at Harvard is always as smooth as Dr. Hill states. If any one believes that all the members of a department have merely to get together and decide on the name of a prospective colleague in order to secure his appointment, such a belief is not warranted. The present writer has heard the most eminent member of one of the chief departments say that his advice has never been asked on any appointment since he joined the department a good many years ago; and the same is probably true, with but few exceptions, throughout the college. The news that a man scarcely known to the college public has been called to fill a chair at Harvard has been repeated so often that nobody is now surprised at it. And although the overseers usually confirm the nominations submitted to them, it is inaccurate to say, as Dr. Hill says, that they always do so. Sufficient embarrassment has been caused by their holding over, or even rejecting, a nominee, to warn the Corporation that it cannot take their confirmation for granted.

We need not apologize for thus laying stress on what seems to be a consideration more personal than would naturally come within the province of a review like the present, for Harvard University to-day embodies a single personality to a degree equalled by very few institutions in the whole wide world. President Eliot has left his stamp everywhere: the various faculties, the Corporation, the overseers, have all helped to transform Harvard during the past twenty-five years, but to him rightly belongs the chief credit. He has made the University presidency not unlike the national presidency when Lincoln filled it—the seat of an autocrat, but of an autocrat wise and strong enough to exercise, by constitutional methods, the great authority due to the power of his personality and not merely to the prestige of his office. Dr. Hill, like Mr. Bryce, marvels at the importance of the American college president compared with the vice-chancellor of an English university. The latter has all the trappings of traditional dignity; he wears special, Britishly gorgeous garments, and is attended by beadles and others, in order that there may be no mistake that he is the Venerable One; and yet his power is slight when measured with that of the Harvard president, to whom the students—such is the unadmirable custom at Cambridge—do not bow in passing.

What we may call the magnification of the president's authority was not, as Dr. Hill remarks, contemplated in the early days, when Harvard presidents were knocked about by religious sectaries, or dismissed to die in poverty. Only a century and a quarter ago one of them was hooted out of office by the students; a little later, another was constantly quailing before the truculent John Hancock. We come down to Quincy before we reach a president at all corresponding to Mr. Eliot in the power to suffuse the institution with his personality. To such an extent did Quincy master details that his successor, Everett, could not long bear a strain which involved such drudgery as picking out wall-papers and carpets. One wonders whether Mr. Eliot's successor may not likewise be overwhelmed by the mass of petty duties which Mr. Eliot's great energy, executive capacity, and control of details have enabled him to discharge with apparent ease. A point worth noting, although we believe Dr. Hill has overlooked it, is that, while at Harvard the ratio between the number of teachers and the number of students has steadily increased, so that there is now one teacher to every nine students, instead of one to sixteen when President Eliot began his administration, the personnel of the administrative and executive departments has increased in no such proportion.

No one can approach even the outskirts of Harvard without hearing the hum of mighty workings. Work—we had almost said "hustle"—seems to be the motto of every one. The Corporation is so thoroughly a business body that it has not a member who may be said to be the especial representative of the humanities: indeed, of thirteen Fellows elected to the Corporation since 1868, but one, Francis Parkman, may be said to have stood primarily for learning. The machinery of the University has grown so large that the type of man whom the Corporation now choose to perpetuate their body is not a scholar, but either a successful financier who can aid them in their investments, or a successful jury-lawyer who can defend their interests in court. If we were told that the board of trustees of a law school had had but one lawyer, or that of a medical school had had but one physician, in a quarter of a century, we should suspect a paradox; and yet this is coming to be the prevailing condition not only at Harvard, but at the other American universities, where the rapid increase of wealth to be administered calls for business men rather than scholars.

Dr. Hill found that the scholarship of the best graduate students at Harvard is on a level with that of the high-honor men at Oxford—the Graduate School being, in the academic department, the real field of University teaching; but the average scholarship of the undergraduates falls short of the English standard. He shrewdly remarks that the great proportion of women teachers in the public schools may account for the imperfect preparation with which many youths go to college. He speaks strongly in favor of the scheme recently proposed at Harvard to separate students, according to their ability, into "classmen" and "passmen." The able student, he says, "must no longer be made to work on the same lines as the dunce and idler, merely doing well what they do ill." As a matter of fact, the able student usually chooses "hard" courses, whereas the dunce or idler chooses "soft" courses, or "snaps." Nevertheless, as Dr. Hill urges, a distinction should be made. "To attain the highest success the student has to reach the top in each one of the sixteen courses through which he has passed in his four years at college. Whether he has stood on the summit of sixteen mole-hills or sixteen mountains matters not a whit." On the other hand, we infer that Dr. Hill would not cite the experience of Oxford to support another recent proposition at Harvard—that scholarships be left open for all competitors, irrespective of their financial needs. One feels that the high-honor men in England work for money prizes more than for knowledge—as must be the case when a man by passing a successful examination wins what is practically a life annuity of £200 or £300. Of the system of examinations by which wranglers and first-class men are produced, Dr. Hill says:

"It does to perfection that which it was meant to do. It fits men for the great world—for success at the bar and in public life. It turns out great lawyers and great statesmen. It keeps up a constant supply of leading-article writers—men who can rapidly make themselves masters of facts and as rapidly set them forth in a clear and able form. It confers dexterity and readiness. On the other hand, it breaks down a certain number—perhaps not many—by the excessive strain it puts upon them, and it unfits still more for the scholar's life. It is for success, not for knowledge, that the struggle has been, and it is success and not knowledge that too often is its great reward."

What Dr. Hill chiefly missed at Harvard was the intellectual sociability which is the delight of Oxford. "Each of the [Oxford] common-rooms," he says, "is a centre of kindly feeling and hospitality. Of these we have twenty, Harvard has not one. It will be easier for Oxford to take to herself all the good there is in the Harvard system than for Harvard to add to her vigorous and admirable organization all that charm and pleasantness of life which make an Oxford man's college scarcely less dear to him than Oxford herself." The line of contrast is well drawn, and yet we may ask how far the delightfulness of the English common rooms has depended on such

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conditions as the conversion of professorships and fellowships into sinecures, and the fierce competition for money prizes, which are part of the mediæval system that the English universities are trying to get rid of. Moreover, more than a beginning in this direction has been made at Harvard in the formation of intellectual clubs, whose members meet their instructors freely, and in the seminaries, where the formal work of a department is carried forward voluntarily by the teachers and pupils.

And this brings us to say that Dr. Hill's remarks on the social life of the students are inevitably incomplete. He has, however, been guided by persons who were in the main trustworthy, although the senior who told him that Harvard students never carry canes and always refer to each other as "boys," instead of "men," was evidently setting a trap for the credulity of an amiable stranger. So, too, the average American will smile at the verdict of an Englishman who confesses that, having seen only the end of one baseball game, he thought baseball but a poor sport compared with cricket—"almost as much below cricket as skittles is below billiards." Dr. Hill criticises the present athletic mania, in which, according to him, American colleges have outstripped the English, although the latter may soon be expected to catch up. We are glad to record that the American practice of charging high prices for tickets to college games amazes a foreigner. "Charge nothing, and do not provide seats, and you will not be troubled by large crowds," is, in substance, Dr. Hill's remedy for the existing evils.

But we must forego taking up in detail many a topic which we had marked for discussion. We should give a wrong impression of Dr. Hill's book if we implied that it is formally argumentative. Far from it: Dr. Hill enlivens his pages with a multitude of amusing anecdotes, and he is remarkably fair and uninsular. The differences between the English and the Harvard systems are often to be inferred from his point of view quite as much as from his downright statements. The result, to Americans, is certainly gratifying, for it is shown that in plant and organism Harvard has nothing to learn from Oxford or Cambridge, and that, under the present régime at least, the spirit which animates the teachers and students at Harvard is a spirit of hard work such as is to be found only among a select minority at the English universities. We can say now with more assurance than could have been said even ten years ago, that Harvard seems to be succeeding in developing a type of university unlike either the English or the German, but better adapted than either to our American conditions, and capable of fostering the highest scholarship.

A SPANISH AMERICAN ANTHOLOGY.—I.

Antología de Poetas Hispano-Americanos. Publicada por la Real Academia Española. Tomo I., México y América Central; Tomo II., Cuba, Santo Domingo, Puerto Rico, Venezuela; Tomo III., Colombia, Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia. Madrid. 1893–'94.

THAT ingenious and delightful novelist and critic, D. Juan Valera, sometime Spanish minister to the United States, has remarked that, though the English-speaking portion of America has manifestly far outstripped the Spanish in material prosperity, the latter has more than held its own in letters. Few North Americans, we imagine, are competent to estimate the justice of this opinion; for few, very few, have the least knowledge of what has been done in literature in that great continent that occupies the southern half of our own hemisphere. It is not impossible to find among us scholars acquainted with the poetry of Persia and India, of China and Japan; but whither would one turn for an authority on the writers of Chile or Brazil? Our traders maintain fitful relations with these lands, our newspapers devote some meagre columns to their political affairs; but our critics have hitherto shown an almost complete indifference to the intellectual activities that obtain there. Even the Bureau of American Republics, we believe, did not venture into this field—a fact to be explained only on the ground that it was not supposable, according to our statesmen, that a North American could care anything about it.

Nevertheless, there is no country in South America that does not boast a somewhat extensive literature, nor any that has not produced men of letters whose work is of more than local interest and value. As long ago as 1863 the eminent German scholar Ferdinand Wolf, in his 'Histoire de la littérature brésilienne' (a far better treatise, by the way, than any as yet written about our own literature), revealed to European readers the existence of an astonishingly rich literary tradition among the Portuguese dwellers in the New World. From time to time, also, the attention of the curious may well have been attracted by the title of some one of the numerous anthologies of Spanish-American poetry—the 'América Poética' of Gutiérrez (Valparaiso, 1846), the 'Lira Americana' of R. Palma (Paris, 1865), the 'América Poética' of D. Cortés (Paris, 1875), the 'América Literaria' of Francisco Lagomaggiore (Buenos Aires, 1883), the 'Poesías de la América Meridional' of Anita J. de Wittstein (Leipzig, 1870), and others. The extreme rarity of these books, however, even in the great libraries of this country, would seem to indicate that few have been found among us to seek and read them. And now we have still another anthology offered us, of wider scope and greater authority than any of those just mentioned. Moved by the general interest of the Columbus centenary, the Spanish Academy at Madrid has undertaken the publication of a collection of poems that shall show the very best that Spanish-American writers have produced in verse. The task of editing and of preparing the necessary introductions has been intrusted to the brilliant professor and Academician, D. Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo, whose anthology of Spanish lyric poets was noticed some months ago in these columns. Various Spanish-American literary bodies, moreover, have lent their aid, going so far in some cases as to compile for the editor's use manuscript anthologies of the poetry of their respective countries. Already three large volumes have appeared, covering all the Spanish-American countries, except Chile and Argentina; and as these last are for various reasons the least interesting of all from a literary point of view, it is not too early to give the reader some notion of what he will find in Señor Menéndez y Pelayo's pages.

It is hardly possible for a North American, especially in view of Señor Valera's dictum, to read these volumes without constant comparison of what our Southern neighbors have accomplished with that which we ourselves have done. It need hardly be said that such a reader will find himself frequently startled, now by trivial unexpectednesses, now by contrasts in the most essential things. What Bostonian, for example, can read without a shock that the question as to the true Athens of America lies between Carácas and Bogotá? What scholarly New Yorker but must pause to reflect when he discovers that, without his knowing anything about it, not a few of the best works of the best South American poets have first seen the light in New York? Again, how many of our university men realize that, long before Harvard was founded, before even the Massachusetts Bay Colony was established, the Spanish settlers had their universities and colleges fully under way? The University of Mexico opened its doors to students in June, 1553; and its chairs of jurisprudence, philosophy and physics, and humanities were filled by really eminent professors, of repute in Spain as well as in America. The University of San Marcos at Lima in Peru, the richest and most influential in South America proper, was established by royal charter of Charles V. in 1555, and offered instruction in philosophy, theology, medicine, and jurisprudence. In Ecuador, not to mention several colleges founded in the sixteenth century, the University of St. Gregory the Great, at Quito, was opened in 1620. New Granada (the modern Colombia) obtained its University of Santo Tomás at Bogotá in 1627. In Venezuela, the College of Santa Rosa at Carácas, founded in 1696, was in 1721 converted into a full-fledged university, with all the faculties. Chuquisaca, or Sucre, the present capital of Bolivia, long before the erection of the modern state, had a university which, during the eighteenth century, attained great eminence. Cuba has had its university at Havana since 1721; and Santo Domingo, in the days of its most desperate depression, before its cession to the French in 1795, still prided itself on its university, which, according to tradition, dated from the time of Charles V.

These are striking facts; but still more striking, perhaps, is the community of intellectual interests maintained down to the very war of Independence between the Spanish colonists and their native land. Here Spanish America had undoubtedly a great advantage over English America. No one can read the history of English colonization without being struck by the intellectual isolation into which the settlers came. They brought interests with them, to be sure—deep though narrow. But the great movement of the English spirit during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries did not trouble itself with them; the great English writers rarely mention them, and, with the exception of Berkeley, show little concern for their experiment or their fate. Spain, on the contrary, was engaged in a very different way by the conquest and the colonization of America. For her these were national projects, not the poor last recourse of an oppressed party or sect. Accordingly, her ambition, her pride, and her imagination were all stirred; all classes in her society, high and low, rich and poor, soldier and scholar, alike shared in the desire to have a part, direct or indirect, in so glorious an undertaking. It was not a hardship, but an honor, to go to lands abounding in wealth, where fame and fortune could be won and salvation achieved by one and the same stroke. Even so, the North American reader cannot but be surprised at the number of Spanish writers and scholars who, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, found their way to the colonies for longer or shorter sojourns, as well as at the interest taken in them and in the first native geniuses of New Spain by the best talents of the Peninsula.

We may pass by with a mere mention, as

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leading to no practical results, that most interesting document, Cervantes' application for a post in the *Indias*—either, as he says, the auditorship of New Granada, or the governorship of the province of Soconusco in Guatemala, or the auditorship of the galleys at Cartagena, or the mayoralty of the city of La Paz. Of greater consequence was the early presence in nearly every one of the colonies of one or more men who, if not belonging to the first rank of Spanish writers, still had breathed the literary atmosphere of the "Siglo de Oro," and by their work won the approbation of the great masters. Thus we find in Mexico during the sixteenth century Bernardo de Valbuena, Juan de la Cueva, Francisco de Salazar, Eugenio Salazar de Alarcón, Mateo Alemán, and Diego Mexía. The very conqueror of New Granada and the founder of Santa Fé de Bogotá, Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada, a quondam Cordovese lawyer, was a writer of no mean powers. In the same province lived also the famous Juan de Castellanos, prolix beyond endurance, but still an *écrivain de race*. We find Peru visited in the sixteenth century by the same Diego Mexía, who was for a while in Mexico, as Menéndez y Pelayo says, "the most felicitous translator of the *Heroides* of Ovid that up to the present time our tongue has had." In Peru also, and for a longer time, lived Fr. Diego de Ojeda, author of the 'Cristiada,' far the best of all the Spanish sacred epics and not always below the level of the 'Paradise Regained.' Even Puerto Rico and Santo Domingo were not without their touch of literary influence—the former in the person of Valbuena, bishop there in his old age (1620–25); the latter in the adventurous captain Gonzalo Fernández de Oviedo y Valdés, as remarkable for the twenty-odd folio volumes he wrote as for his extraordinary activity and experiences.

These celebrities, however, were far from constituting the whole body of intermediaries who carried the best of Spanish culture to the New World. With them went many of less name, but perhaps not less influence. Among these were teachers of the humanities in great numbers, who speedily diffused the study of the classics throughout the colonies, not only in the capitals, but also in the smaller places. This is illustrated by the statement of the poet Mexía that, having undertaken the voyage from Peru to Mexico in 1596, he was driven by stress of weather into the harbor of the little San Salvadorian town of Sonsonate, where he bought from a student the copy of Ovid that served him for his translation of the 'Heroides.' A further illustration is the well-known richness of the old book-shops of Mexico and Lima in fine old editions of the classics. As a consequence, the tradition of humanism speedily established itself, and love and admiration for the Latin classics became a permanent element in South American culture. Even the refinements of classical study, such as the composition of Latin verses, were not neglected; and we have a long line of poets in this genre, culminating in the last century in the Jesuit of Guatemala, P. Landivar, whom Menéndez y Pelayo does not hesitate to compare with Politian, Fracastorius, and Pontanus, as "one of the most excellent poets to be found in modern Latinity." And, indeed, his 'Rusticatio Mexicana' is one of the most interesting works written on American soil.

The fact that Landivar was a Jesuit, as well as the subject of his poem, suggests still another powerful influence upon South American letters. Hardly had the Society of Jesus become thoroughly established when it began to send its members across the ocean, both as missionaries to the conquered Indians and as teachers of the conquering Spaniards. Many of these men were persons of fine cultivation; and, what is more important for our present purpose, they had their share in the development of that poetic tradition which may fairly be called "Jesuitic"—a tradition as yet little studied, and too often alluded to with scorn, but none the less deserving of attention. Primarily descriptive in its character, and based upon the Georgics of Virgil, this Jesuitic poetry has undoubtedly produced many monuments of portentous dulness. Even its best-known representative, the Abbé Delille, despite his extraordinary popularity at the end of the last century, now finds more to rail at than to read him. None the less, however, the poetry of description owes more to him and to his fellow-poets than is generally admitted; and certain it is that the persistence of the tradition in South America has given rise to works that far surpass in power and beauty anything in their kind we Americans of the North can boast of. The quaintly named 'Memoria sobre el cultivo del maiz en Antioquía' of the Colombian Gutiérrez González, and the 'Agricultura en la zona tórrida' of the Chilean Andrés Bello, give us the landscape, the natural life, the human occupations of the South American community with a tender respect such as among us Whittier alone has shown, and with a force and beauty of poetic expression such as Whittier never attains.

Walton, and Some Earlier Writers on Fish and Fishing. By R. B. Marston, Editor of the *Fishing Gazette*. London: Elliot Stock. 1894.

ANGLING literature, especially the early part of it, offers many pleasures to the lover of the quaint and curious, as well as to those who enjoy the beautiful descriptions of natural objects with which some of these works abound. Mr. Marston is thoroughly competent to set forth in an attractive way the choice portions of the various writers from whom he quotes, and, being an angler as well as a literary man, he tells many things of interest to those who care more for catching fish than for the ethical part of his volume.

Walton, of course, is Mr. Marston's chief figure, and he has succeeded in producing something new on this well-worked subject, at which almost every angling writer of this century has had a try, and generally an unsuccessful one. The discovery where the excellent pictures of fish in the early Waltons were obtained is given on page 141. Doubtless Mr. Marston is correct in stating that they were copied from the works of Gessner, the great German naturalist, to whom Walton frequently refers. The prices at which first Waltons have sold are very interesting. Mr. Marston quotes the value in 1816 at £4 4, but in a copy of the first formerly owned by William Crawhall is a list, in Mr. Crawhall's writing, of the prices at which this copy had been sold at auction. They are probably chronologically arranged, though no dates are given, and there are ten quotations, beginning with the Haworth sale, at which the volume sold for £10 15, and ending at the Gardner sale, where it fetched £10 17 6. At the Nassau sale the price was £3 10, which is below the £4 4 quoted as the 1816 price by Mr. Marston. At the Beckford sale in 1883 a copy brought £87. Three or four have since been sold at auction, the last perfect one fetching £310, though we believe there was some special association of former ownership in this which increased its value, as one has since been sold for £235 by Pickering & Chatto.

Chapter x., on "The Compleat Angler from an Angler's Point of View," is charming from the sentimental as well as from the practical side, and is perhaps the best in a book where all are excellent. Mr. Marston has of course quoted largely from Walton, and made no mistakes in selecting these passages most worthy of repeating. The first of the verses of "Holy Mr. Herbert," themselves quoted by Walton, and beginning:

> "Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright,
> The bridal of the earth and skie,
> Sweet dews shall weep thy fall to-night,
> For thou must die,"

is given before this apostrophe to angling: "No life, my honest Scholar, no life so happy and so pleasant as the life of a well-governed Angler; for when the Lawyer is swallowed up with business, and the Statesman is preventing or contriving plots, then we sit on Cowslip-banks, hear the birds sing, and possess ourselves in as much quietness as these silent silver streams, which we now see glide so quietly by us," etc.

Dame Juliana Berners or, more properly, "Julyans Barnes," to whom is attributed the 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle,' 1496, a republication of the 'Book of St. Albans,' printed ten years previously, is discussed and her merits set forth in chapter ii. Mr. Marston makes no reference to a publication of Mr. Satchell's, in 1883, of an older form of 'Treatyse of Fysshynge with an Angle,' from a MS. in the Denison collection, to which Prof. Skeat assigns an earlier date than 1450, and Mr. Satchell thinks that this was compiled from some earlier original. However, Dame Julyans first gave it to the public, and to her should go the credit for the sound morality and sportsmanlike advice found therein.

In 1613 was published 'The Secrets of Angling,' by J. D., which Mr. Marston calls "the most charming poem in all our English angling literature." If not quite the truth, this commendation is pretty near it, and the admirable reprint, with an excellent introduction by Thomas Westwood (London, 1883), is a book that should be in every gentlemen's library. There are certainly few more beautiful verses in praise of Summer and her natural beauties than these by J. D.:

> "I count it better pleasure to behold
> The goodly compasse of the loftie Skye,
> And in the midst thereof, like burning gold,
> The flaming Chariot of the world's great eye,
> The watry cloudes that in the ayre vprold
> With sundry kindes of painted colours flie:
> And fayre Aurora lifting up her head,
> And blushing rise from old Tithonus' bed.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> The lofty woods, the forrests wide and long,
> Adorned with leaues and branches fresh and greene,
> In whose coole bowr's the birds with chaunting song
> Do welcome with their quire the Summers queene,
> The meadows faire where Flora's guifts among
> Are intermixt the verdant grasse betweene,
> The siluer skaled fish that softlie swimme
> Within the brookes & Cristall watry brimme."

Thomas Barker, who is accused of having been a cook, published in 1651 'The Arte of Angling,' a second edition of which he called 'Barker's Delight.' In this short work is first mentioned the use of the winch or reel. Walton quotes from Barker, who, he says, is "a gentleman who has spent much time and money in angling." Gervase Markham wrote numerous works on angling and other rural amusements and avocations, of which the titles even are interesting: 'The English Husbandman drawne into two bookes' (1613); 'The Pleasvres of Princes, Good Mens Recreations, containing a discourse

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of the generall art of fishing with the angle or otherwise, and of all the hidden secrets belonging thereunto; together with the choyce of the fighting cocke' (1614); 'Cheape & Goode Husbandry for the well ordering of all beasts & fowles & for the general cure of their diseases' (1616); 'The Young Sportsman's Instructor in angling, hawking, hunting, ordering singing-birds, poultry, coneys, hares, & dogs, & how to cure them.' This last is a very diminutive volume, about two inches square and very scarce. There was printed (*circa* 1712) another edition with a second title, which is one of the rarest of angling books. Mr. Marston thinks that Markham may have been assisted in the compilation of his book of 1614 by one William Lawson. It is evident from their great differences in style and composition that he must have had help in some of his numerous books.

Although Mr. Marston has made a most interesting book, it is to be regretted by every lover of angling literature that he has passed by so much valuable material. Du Bartas alone could furnish a chapter. The establishment of the identity of Stephanus, whose wonderful recipes are quoted by Mascall, the only known reference to him, would be a task well worthy of Mr. Marston's powers. 'A Family Jewel, or the Woman's Counsellor' (1704), 'The Accomplish'd Ladies Delight in preserving, physich. beautifying, & cookery . . . . also some new & excellent secrets & experiments in the art of angling' (1683), and other works of this period, are well worthy of notice.

The great interest, however, centres in Walton himself, and this is fully recognized by Mr. Marston. These lines from the beautiful verses of Mr. Westwood, to whom and his associate, Mr. Satchell, is due the gratitude of every lover of angling literature, though not quoted in the volume under notice, seem especially applicable to its chief subject:

"So Fine-ear, bending, Izaak, o'er thy tomb,
Through chink and crevice of the mouldering stone
Hears, as it were, a riople and a rhyme—
Hear quaint discourse—Piscator's homily,
Venator's staid response, and, after pause,
The piping minor of the Milkmaid's song,
With cadence of the nightingale and thrush,
Or distant-sounding bay of otter hounds:
Old life, old sport of Lea-side and of Dove—
The life we cherish, and the sport we love."

Theatricals. By Henry James. Harpers. 1894.

"The Album" and "The Reprobate" are the names of two new, or, at all events, unacted, comedies which constitute the second volume of Mr. Henry James's 'Theatricals,' and, like their predecessors, "Tenants" and "Disengaged," they are introduced to the public by their author with an explanatory and apologetic preface, which again sets forth, with an assumption of good humor and resignation that does not quite conceal the workings of a rebellious spirit, the infinite difficulties, restrictions, and intellectual humiliations besetting the man of letters who tries to write a play to order, with the view of "fitting" a particular player or a particular company. It must be admitted, after reading his account of them, that the conditions imposed upon him were not to be fulfilled easily. His subjects were to be chosen "from the uttermost regions of dramatic amiability," to be surrounded with "the bland air of the little domestic fairy tale," to be comprised within the strictest definition of comedy (not in itself, perhaps, a very tremendous limitation), to be sentimental and gay, abounding in coincidence, and served up in a whirl of perpetual motion. Nor was this all. He soon found, by bitter experience, that artistic, literary, and truly dramatic considerations, such trivial matters as probability, proportion, consistency, and intelligibility, were held to be of small account, as compared with such theatrical necessities as startling incidents and situations, incessant bustle, opportunities of personal display, remorseless compression, and a happy ending for everybody and everything. Finally, doubtless there was the mortification (although Mr. James touches but lightly on this point) of being obliged to submit, in all questions of expediency, propriety, reasonability, or taste, to the managerial judgment—a tribunal generally beyond all powers of argument or appeal.

A play compounded according to managerial prescription may succeed so far as mere money-making is concerned, but it rarely happens that one of them is worth printing afterwards, and this is a truth of which Mr. James shows himself conscious. Not that there is not enough literary merit in "The Album" and "The Reprobate" to justify their publication. On the contrary, there is in their polished and witty dialogue much to please the intelligent reader; nevertheless, their inherent feebleness as plays, in both conception and construction, is revealed very clearly when left to the interpretation of type only. Both in plot and in their characters they are curiously artificial, unlifelike, and extravagant for the inventions of a student of modern society.

"The Album" is founded upon the story of a miserly and unscrupulous baronet, who secures a fortune for himself by wilfully concealing the fact of the existence of another heir, his own first cousin. Having inherited the money, he is pursued at home and abroad by two women, each of whom is determined to marry him, and one of whom almost captures him. Partly to get rid of her, and partly because he fears that his treachery to his cousin will be exposed by the heroine, he surrenders his ill-gotten gains and so escapes disgrace and matrimony. Something, perhaps, might be made out of this scheme by adroit treatment, but Mr. James's management of the whole testamentary business is unconvincing, while the baronet and his feminine persecutors have scarcely a touch of actuality in them. The hero and heroine are more human, but their troubles fail to excite sympathy, because they arise mainly from that unnatural suppression of fact which is one of the oldest devices for maintaining stage complications.

"The Reprobate" depends upon a yet slighter foundation. The hero is a young man thirty years old, who, having been guilty of a youthful escapade, has been convinced by his stepmother and another guardian that nothing but the extremest mental and physical asceticism can save him from ruin. He allows himself, therefore, to be treated like a baby until the heroine inspires him to play truant for a day or two in London, whence he returns transformed into a dashing young lover, to marry the heroine and assume the direction of everything and everybody. There are some neatly executed character sketches in this piece—the bumptious and ignorant young member of Parliament, for instance—but the Reprobate himself, the central figure, is too fantastic even for amusement, unless, indeed, he should be played in the broadest and frankest spirit of burlesque, which would ruin every other character. Making every allowance for the good quality of much of the dialogue, and the possible comicality of some of the situations, it is difficult to believe that a play of so little plausibility could have any chance of successful representation. Certainly it is unworthy of Mr. James's reputation and undisputed abilities. Fitting plays to companies is mere tailor-work, a shocking waste of real talent and a terrible encouragement to bad acting.

The Borderland of Czar and Kaiser. By Poultney Bigelow. Harper & Brothers.

This collection, in book form, of Mr. Bigelow's articles from *Harper's Monthly*, with some added matter, forms a pleasant, pretty little volume. Naturally, the two chapters on German soil, "Side Lights on the German Soldier." and "Emperor William's Stud-Farm and Hunting-Forest," are of more value than the six chapters on Russia, as Mr. Bigelow was not in Russia long enough to make many personal observations or to make inquiries about the statements of his informants. "In the Barracks of the Czar" is interesting, because it does present, chiefly, personal observations, though the author's Polish military friend is stationed in Poland (between St. Petersburg and Kovno), where the officer asserts that no Poles are assigned to duty. "The Russian and his Jew" is distinctly good, fair, and well stated. The last two chapters read like a summary of sessions of the Senate Investigating Committee, in their list of briberies and various sorts of corruption. Many of the statements as to agricultural conditions in "On a Russian Farm" are correct, but require further explanation to set them in their true light. The root of the whole difficulty is, without a doubt, the system of holding land in common, and being assessed in common for the taxes, with the inevitable results, from which those who advocate communistic principles might draw a valuable lesson.

If we may judge from his dedication, Mr. Bigelow regards his explanation of "Why we left Russia" as the most important part of his book. But, from his own account, the Russian Government had nothing to do with it. On June 1 he and Mr. Frederick Remington (whose delightful pictures furnish at least half its value to the book) sent a letter, presumably from Berlin, to the American Chargé d'Affaires at St. Petersburg, stating that they were on a "mission" to inspect the tree- and grass-planting along the sandy seashore of the Baltic. They wished to make notes and sketches as they sailed along the coast in their canoes. The letter probably reached Petersburg on June 3 or 4; they called on the American diplomat on June 6; sent their boats back to Germany on the 8th, without waiting to see whether permission would be granted or not; and were in Kovno, well on their way back to Germany, on June 10. In the meantime, Mr. Bigelow had made a trip to a "Russian Farm," and both travellers had stopped on their way to Kovno to visit "the Czar's Barracks." Evidently, they left Russia because they were impatient, and because they preferred to appear as "a mission" rather than as private citizens. As it was, they could probably have taken their trip and made, without permission, their notes and sketches, as other travellers have done before them, had they wished. The incident with the passports was in reality not alarming. If there had been anything wrong, they would have been summoned to the police office or interviewed by the police. The landlord of their hotel was trying to detain them for his own profit, by keeping the documents beyond the legal time-limit. It is also very puzzling to be told that they did not receive their canoes in Stettin until July 2, after having last seen them on June 8 in St. Petersburg,

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and then to learn (p. 307) that Mr. Bigelow lifted from his shoulder the sails and masts of his canoe, and tossed the clumsy load on what he took to be a pile of corn-sacks covered with tarpaulin—which turned out to be a woman—in Kovno, on June 10. A little longer acquaintance with the country might have led Mr. Bigelow to different and wiser conclusions on many points.

The Outlines of Quaternions. By Lieut.-Col. H. W. L. Hime. Longmans. 1894.

It is our duty to say that the value of this book is less than nothing. True, it is free from the inconvenience of being too difficult which attaches to several treatises on the subject. It has the opposite fault of not carrying the student far enough to make him realize the full power of the method. The elementary parts are often awkward, and do not seem to be fully in the spirit of quaternions. In some places we find monstrous heresies. Thus, it is stated that all equiangular versors are equal! Such a remark is not elucidating the calculus of quaternions, but muddling it. The mathematical reader will hardly believe it possible, but it is true that the author deliberately writes

$$i=j=k,$$

and says this is true of these letters considered as quadrantal versors, though not as vectors.

After treating of every kind of quaternion, and particularly scalars and vectors in different planes, for 48 pages, on page 49 we find the objection that heterogeneous quantities cannot be added, treated seriously—a doubt which ought not to have been ignored so long. "It may be objected," says the author, "that a number and a line . . . can no more be added together than a pint and a mile." Instead of giving any clear reply, to the effect that a pint and a mile can be added, though not reduced to one term, he tries to excuse the idea of multiple algebra, and only to excuse it, by saying it is like the functional expression $(1+\Delta)$. The analogy is superficial, because the 1 and Δ are not really but only seemingly heterogeneous. In short, the author has no firm grasp of the fundamental conceptions of his subject, and his book is fit to be put into the hands of students who have such grasp only as an exercise in refutation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Miss Sarah L. Waymarks for Teachers. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Bierbrower, Austin. From Monkey to Man; or, Society in the Tertiary Age. Chicago: Dibble Publishing Co.
Bricqueville, Eugène de. Les Anciens Instruments de Musique. Paris: *L'Art*.
Browning, Mrs. E. B. Sonnets from the Portuguese. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Brugmann, Prof. Karl. A Comparative Grammar of the Indo-Germanic Language. Vol. IV. Westermann.
Budde, Prof. K. The Books of Samuel in Hebrew. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Bunner, H. C. More "Short Sixes." Illustrated. Kepler & Schwarzmann.
Burdette, R. J. The Modern Temple and Templars: A Sketch of the Life and Work of Russell H. Conwell. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Call, Annie P. As a Matter of Course. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Carpenter, Mary T. In Cairo and Jerusalem: An Eastern Note-Book. Randolph. $1.50.
Calverley, C. S. Verses and Fly-Leaves. Putnams. $1.50.
Chambers's Concise Gazetteer of the World. London: W. & R. Chambers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Clegg, James. The International Directory of second-hand Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual. Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: John Anderson, Jr.
Dennis, J. T. On the Shores of an Inland Sea. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Dixon, Prof. A. C. The Elementary Properties of the Elliptic Eunctions. Macmillan. $1.25.
Driver, Prof. S. R., and White, Rev. H. A. The Book of Leviticus in Hebrew. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Eaton, Seymour. Business Forms, Customs, and Accounts. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Encyclopædic Dictionary. Vol. IV. Rhe—Z. Philadelphia: Syndicate Publishing Co.
Furman, A. A. Philip of Pokanoket: An Indian Drama. Stettiner, Lambert & Co. $1.50.
Futterer, Karl. Afrika in seiner Bedeutung für die Goldproduktion in Vergangenheit, Gegenwart und Zukunft. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Gilbert, W. S. Original Plays. Third Series. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribners. $1.
Giles, F. S. Shadows Before; or, A Century Onward. Humboldt Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Godwin, Parke. Commemorative Addresses. Harpers. $1.75.
Gomme, Alice B. Children's Singing Games. Second Series. London: David Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Haeckel, Prof. Ernst. Monism as connecting Religion and Science. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. 80 cents.
Hadow, W. H. Studies in Modern Music. Second Series. Macmillan. $2.25.
Harte, W. B. Meditations in Motley. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hayley, H. W. An Introduction to the Verse of Terence. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Henderson, W. J. Sea Yarns for Boys. Harpers. $1.25.
Hewitt, Grally. Knights of Cockayne. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Hinckley, F. A. The Deeper Meanings. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 50 cents.
Hoffman, Otto. Episodes from Andreas Hofer. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Holden, Warren. Many Moods. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75 cents.
Hopkins, E. P. Problems and Quiz on the Law of Contracts. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Hopper, Nora. Ballads in Prose. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50
Hunt, Matthew. The King's Daughter, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Huntington, Margaret W. Told in a Hammock. Illustrated. Marcus Ward & Co. $1.
Hurll, Estelle M. Child-Life in Art. Illustrated. Boston: *Joseph Knight Co.* $2.
Hyde, J. W. The Post in Grant and Farm. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
King, Bolton. Essays by Joseph Mazzini newly done into English. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Lethaby, W. R., and Swainson, H. The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople: A Study of Byzantine Building. Macmillan. $6.50.
Lewis, L. R. The National School Library of Song. No. 1. Boston Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Lorimer, Rev. G. C. The Argument for Christianity. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $2.
Lowell, Percival. Occult Japan: or, The Way of the Gods. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Macaulay's Essay on Milton. American Book Co. 20 cents.
Magnus, Lady. Boys of the Bible. Illustrated. Raphael Tuck & Sons.
Machen, Arthur. The Great God Pan, and the Inmost Light. London: John Lane: Boston; Roberts Bros. $1.
McClelland, M. G. St. John's Wooing. Harpers. $1.
McClung, D. W. Money Talks: Some of the Things It Says. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Ostrander, S. M. A History of the City of Brooklyn and Kings County. 2 vols. Brooklyn: Mrs. W. M. Ostrander, 95 Madison St. $10.
Scribner's Magazine. 1894. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Strettell, Alma. Lullabies of Many Lands, Collected and rendered into English Verse. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Thomas, Cyrus. Report on the Mound Explorations of the Bureau of Ethnology: Washington: Government Printing Office.
Ward, C. O. The Equilibration of Human Aptitudes and Powers of Adaptation. Washington: *National Watchman* Co. $1.25.

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